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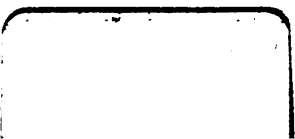
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ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES

FOR THE YEAR 1908

IN THREE VOLUMES

WITH APPENDICES TO VOLUME ONE BOUND SEPARATELY

VOLUME ONE

IN TWO PARTS—PART II

TRANSMITTED TO THE LEGISLATURE FEBRUARY 23, 1909

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No. 41.

I N S E N A T E

FEBRUARY 23, 1909.

FORTY-SECOND ANNUAL REPORT OF THE STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES

STATE OF NEW YORK:
OFFICE OF THE STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES,
THE CAPITOL, ALBANY, FEBRUARY 23, 1909.

To the HON. HORACE WHITE,

Lieutenant-Governor and President of the Senate:

SIR.—By direction of the Board, I have the honor herewith to transmit to the Legislature the forty-second annual report of the State Board of Charities.

Yours very respectfully,

WILLIAM R. STEWART,

President.

MEMBERS AND OFFICERS.

OF THE

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES FOR THE YEAR 1908

MEMBERS APPOINTED BY THE GOVERNOR, BY AND WITH THE ADVICE AND CONSENT OF
THE SENATE.

DISTRICTS.	Names and addresses.	Date of appointment.
First Judicial..... (New York County.)	William R. Stewart, President, 31 Nassau street, New York City.	May 31, 1882
New York City.....	Mrs. Annie G. Bolton,† 2345 Broadway, New York City.	October 4, 1890
New York City.....	Stephen Smith, M. D., Vice-President, 300 Central Park West, New York City.	*March 30, 1893
New York City.....	Thomas M. Mulry, 51 Chambers street, New York City.	May 29, 1907
Second Judicial..... (Counties of Richmond, Suffolk, Nassau, Queens and Kings.)	Augustus Floyd, Mastic, Moriches P. O., N. Y.	June 1, 1903
Third Judicial..... (Counties of Columbia, Sullivan, Ulster, Greene, Albany, Schoharie and Rensselaer.)	Simon W. Rosendale, 57 State street, Albany, N. Y.	March 8, 1899
Fourth Judicial..... (Counties of Warren, Saratoga, Washington, Essex, Franklin, St. Lawrence, Clinton, Montgomery, Hamilton, Fulton and Schenectady.)	Richard L. Hand, Elizabethtown, N. Y.	June 9, 1908
Fifth Judicial..... (Counties of Onondaga, Oneida, Oswego, Herkimer, Jefferson and Lewis.)	Dennis McCarthy, 818 James street, Syracuse, N. Y.	March 8, 1899
Sixth Judicial..... (Counties of Otsego, Delaware, Madison, Chenango, Broome, Tioga, Chemung, Tompkins, Cortland and Schuyler.)	Ralph W. Thomas, Hamilton, N. Y.	April 2, 1903
Seventh Judicial..... (Counties of Livingston, Wayne, Seneca, Yates, Ontario, Steuben, Monroe and Cayuga.)	Horace McGuire, 711 Wilder Building, Rochester, N. Y.	June 9, 1908
Eighth Judicial..... (Counties of Erie, Chautauqua, Cattaraugus, Orleans, Niagara, Genesee, Allegany and Wyoming.)	William H. Gratwick, 814 Fidelity Trust Bldg., Buffalo, N. Y.	April 17, 1901
Ninth Judicial..... (Counties of Dutchess, Putnam, Orange, Rockland and Westchester.)	Joseph C. Baldwin, Jr., Mount Kisco, N. Y.	May 29, 1907

OFFICERS.

WILLIAM R. STEWART.....	PRESIDENT
STEPHEN SMITH, M. D.....	VICE-PRESIDENT
ROBERT W. HILL.....	SECRETARY
WILLIAM C. ROGERS.....	SUPERINTENDENT OF STATE AND ALIEN POOR
RICHARD W. WALLACE.....	SUPERINTENDENT OF INSPECTION

* Previously a commisisoner.

† Change of name.

DIGEST OF THE THIRTY-SIXTH ANNUAL REPORT
OF THE
STATE CHARITIES AID ASSOCIATION TO THE STATE
BOARD OF CHARITIES

Vol. 1-P. 2-1

STATE CHARITIES AID ASSOCIATION OF NEW YORK.

UNITED CHARITIES BUILDING,
No. 105 E. 22d STREET, NEW YORK.

OFFICERS.

1908-1909.

President,

MR. JOSEPH H. CHOATE.

Vice-Presidents,

MRS. WILLIAM B. RICE.

MR. GEORGE F. CANFIELD.

MISS LOUISA LEE SCHUYLER.

Treasurer,

MR. EDWARD W. SHELDON.

Librarian,

MRS. HENRY OOTHOUT.

Secretary,

MR. HOMER FOLKS.

Assistant Secretary,

MISS MARY VIDA CLARK.

BOARD OF MANAGERS.

1908-1909.

Term Expires 1909.

MR. EUGENE A. PHILBIN.	MR. P. TECUMSEH SHERMAN.
MR. EDWARD W. SHELDON.	MR. FELIX M. WARBURG.
MISS LOUISA LEE SCHUYLER.	MRS. MARY HATCH WILLARD.
MR. THEODORE L. FROTHINGHAM.	

Term Expires 1910.

MRS. TUNIS G. BERGEN.	MR. GEORGE F. CANFIELD.
MISS M. KATE BRICE.	MR. JOSEPH H. CHOATE.
MISS HELEN C. BUTLER.	MR. CHARLES S. FAIRCHILD.

Term Expires 1911.

DR. CHARLES HITCHCOCK.	MR. JOHN A. MCKIM.
MR. FRANCIS C. HUNTINGTON.	MISS RUTH MORGAN.
MR. CHARLES H. MARSHALL.	MRS. HENRY OOTHOUT.
MRS. WILLIAM B. RICE.	

STANDING COMMITTEES.

1908-1909.

On Children.

Mr. Felix M. Warburg, <i>Chairman.</i>	Mrs. Henry Oothout.
Mr. Francis C. Huntington, <i>Secretary.</i>	Mr. Eugene A. Philbin.
Mr. George F. Canfield.	Mr. John B. Pine.
Mr. Joseph H. Choate.	Mrs. William B. Rice.
Dr. A. Jacobi.	Mrs. Mary Hatch Willard.

Sub-Committee on Placing Out and Supervision of Children in Families.

Mrs. Mary Hatch Willard, <i>Chairman.</i>	Miss Ruth Morgan.
Miss Elizabeth W. Guy, <i>Secretary.</i>	Mrs. Henry Oothout.
Miss Beatrice Bend.	Mrs. Alexander Mercer Pell.
Mrs. Tunis G. Bergen.	Miss Florence M. Rhett.
Miss Eleanor Boesé.	Mrs. William B. Rice.
Miss M. Kate Brice.	Mrs. George F. Shradly.
Miss Mabel Choate.	Mrs. Charles Stoele.
Mrs. Frederick L. Eldridge.	Miss Sarah Steward.
Miss Emily Nichols Hatch.	Mrs. Alfred Tuckerman.
Miss Annie Jennings.	Miss Helen Turnbull.
Mrs. Theodore W. Luling.	Mrs. W. Holden Weeks.
Miss Anne Morgan.	Mrs. John Wells.

Miss Marie Winthrop.

Sub-Committee on Assisting and Providing Situations for Mothers with Infants.

Mrs. Henry Oothout, <i>Chairman.</i>	Miss E. R. Innes.
Miss Helen C. Butler, <i>Secretary and Treasurer.</i>	Miss Annie B. Jennings.
Mrs. Edward Bell.	Mrs. William Kingsland.
Miss Edith Bryce.	Miss Fanny Norris.
Mrs. J. Milton Gitterman.	Mrs. William B. Rice.
Mrs. W. P. Hamilton.	Miss Josephine Stevens.
Mrs. August Heckscher.	Mrs. John Seeley Ward.
	Mrs. F. W. Whitridge.

On Hospitals.

Mr. Theodore L. Frothingham, <i>Chairman.</i>	Dr. J. T. Duryea.
Mr. Homer Folks, <i>Secretary.</i>	Dr. C. Irving Fisher.
Mr. Bailey B. Burritt, <i>Assistant Secretary.</i>	Dr. Lewis F. Frissell.
Mrs. Tunis G. Bergen.	Dr. S. S. Goldwater.
Mr. George Blagden.	Mr. James H. Hamilton.
Dr. John S. Billings.	Dr. Charles Hitchcock.
Rev. George F. Clover.	Rev. A. S. Kavanagh.
Mrs. William Kinnicutt Draper.	Mr. Franklin B. Kirkbride.
	Mr. Edgar J. Levey.
	Dr. Samuel Lloyd.

Dr. William P. Northrup.
Dr. Frederick Peterson.

Mr. Alexander C. Proudft.
Mrs. John Wells.

Dr. Linsly R. Williams.

Sub-Committee on State Charitable Institutions.

Mr. George F. Canfield, *Chairman*.
Miss Mary Vida Clark, *Secretary*.
Miss M. Kate Brice.
Mr. Homer Folks.

Mr. John A. McKim.
Miss Anne Morgan.
Miss Ruth Morgan.
Mr. Eugene A. Philbin.

Special Committee on Prevention of Tuberculosis.

Mr. George F. Canfield, *Chairman*.
Mr. Homer Folks, *Secretary*.
Mr. John A. Kingsbury, *Assistant Secretary*.
Dr. Hermann M. Biggs.
Miss M. Kate Brice.
Miss Mary Vida Clark.
Mrs. Paul Dana.
Mrs. William Kinnicutt Draper.

Dr. Livingston Farrand.
Dr. Charles Hitchcock.
Dr. Edward G. Janeway.
Mr. C. H. Marshall.
Mr. John A. McKim.
Mrs. William B. Rice.
Dr. Edward L. Trudeau.
Hon. Eugene H. Porter, M. D., *ex officio*.

On Pauper Delinquents.

Mr. John A. McKim, *Chairman*.
Mr. Homer Folks, *Secretary*.
Mr. Francis C. Huntington.

Mr. Edwin T. Rice, Jr.
Mrs. William B. Rice.
Mr. P. Tecumseh Sherman.

On Finance.

Miss M. Kate Brice, *Chairman*.
Miss Ruth Morgan, *Secretary*.
Mr. Edward W. Sheldon, *Treasurer*.
Miss Mabel Choate.
Mr. Robert W. de Forest.
Mr. Charles S. Fairchild.

Mr. J. J. Higginson.
Miss Florence M. Rhett.
Mrs. William B. Rice.
Mrs. Archibald D. Russell.
Mr. James Speyer.
Miss Dora P. Whitney.

On the Insane.

Mr. George F. Canfield, *Chairman*.
Miss Mary Vida Clark, *Secretary*.
Miss Louisa Lee Schuyler.
Dr. Charles L. Dana.
Mr. Charles S. Fairchild.

Mr. Homer Folks.
Dr. Charles Hitchcock.
Mr. Francis C. Huntington.
Mr. William Church Osborn.
Dr. Frederick Peterson.

Sub-Committee on Prevention and After-Care.

Miss Louisa Lee Schuyler, *Chairman*.
Miss Mary Vida Clark, *Secretary*.
Mrs. H. W. Munroe.

Miss Florence M. Rhett.
Mrs. James Roosevelt.
Mrs. Frank Sullivan Smith.

Mrs. Paul Tuckerman.

EXECUTIVE STAFF.

HOMER FOLKS, *Secretary.*

MISS MARY VIDA CLARK, *Assistant Secretary.*

STANDING COMMITTEE ON CHILDREN.

Agency for Assisting Mothers with Babies.

MISS MARY R. MASON, *Agent.*

MISS JEAN LOOMIS, *Assistant Agent.*

Agency for Placing-out Children.

MISS ELIZABETH W. GUY, *Superintendent.*

MISS MARTHA FARKASCH, *Assistant Agent.*

MISS HELEN GRIFFITHS, *Assistant Agent.*

MISS SOPHIE L. THEIS, *Assistant Agent.*

MISS MARY A. DEACON, *State Agent.*

County Agencies for Dependent Children.

MISS H. IDA CURRY, *Superintendent.*

MISS MARY I. BRILL, *Newburgh Agent.*

MRS. RACHEL S. SMITH, *Columbia County Agent.*

MISS ANNE W. HOPSON, *Rockland County Agent.*

MISS EMELYN F. PECK, *Schenectady County Agent.*

MISS ANNE L. LOUDON, *Montgomery County Agent.*

MISS AMELIA CAMPBELL, *Oneida County Agent.**

MISS ELLA DUBOIS, *Dutchess County Agent.**

MISS EMMA BROWNELL, *Herkimer County Agent.**

STANDING COMMITTEE ON HOSPITALS.

HOMER FOLKS, *Secretary.*

BAILEY B. BURRITT, *Assistant Secretary.*

SPECIAL COMMITTEE ON PREVENTION OF TUBERCULOSIS.

HOMER FOLKS, *Secretary.*

JOHN A. KINGSBURY, *Assistant Secretary.*

GEORGE J. NELBACH, *Field Agent.*

MISS ELIZABETH B. READ, *Director of Correspondence Campaign.*

JAMES H. HUTCHENS, *Director of Exhibits.*

* The agency in this county began work in January, 1909.

8 ANNUAL REPORT OF THE STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES.

STANDING COMMITTEE ON THE INSANE.

Sub-Committee on Prevention and After-Care.

MISS M. V. CLARK, *Secretary.*

MISS E. H. HORTON, *Agent.*

NEW YORK CITY VISITING COMMITTEE.

COURTENAY DINWIDDIE, *Secretary.*

MRS. EMILY V. WHITE, *Assistant Secretary.*

DIGEST OF THE THIRTY-SIXTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE STATE CHARITIES AID ASSOCIATION.

SUMMARY OF WORK OF PAST YEAR.

1. The Association's local committees have visited and maintained supervision over the almshouses and public hospitals in 43 of the 58 counties of the State which have such institutions, including the frequent inspection of the very large institutions in the Departments of Public Charities and of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals in New York City.

2. Several county committees have appeared before county board of supervisors, and the New York City visiting committee has appeared before the board of estimate and apportionment, to state the needs of public charitable institutions, and to urge proper appropriations therefor.

3. All but two of the thirteen State hospitals for the insane, and seven of the State charitable institutions have been visited during the year from the central office or by the Association's 70 local visitors to State institutions.

4. On October 1, 1907, the Association began an active campaign for the prevention of tuberculosis in this State, outside of New York City. An assistant secretary and six assistants devote their entire time to this work. In co-operation with the State health department and the county committees of this Association, active campaigns have been carried on in the cities of Utica, Rome, Troy, Albany, Schenectady, Canandaigua, Geneva, Auburn and Cortland. As a result, six dispensaries have been opened; two large hospitals are being built; visiting nurses for tuberculous patients have been provided in six cities; and many other important steps in an educational and constructive campaign in these cities have been taken. Tuberculosis exhibits were shown at the State Fair, and at thirty-five county fairs, at which the total attendance was 1,036,542. Literature was distributed at these fairs to the amount of 344,640

pieces. A press bulletin is sent weekly to 480 newspapers and periodicals and to 132 individuals.

5. All proposed legislation relating to charities has been carefully examined, and the Association has taken an active part, in co-operation with other societies, institutions and individuals, in endeavoring to influence legislation which affects the welfare of the poor. During the legislative session of 1908, the Association was actively interested in the following bills, among others, all of which became law (the first being drafted by the Association):

a. Defining the powers and duties of local health officers in connection with the prevention of tuberculosis.

b. Appropriating \$188,575 for the purchase of a site for the Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum.

c. Appropriating \$125,000 for the purchase of a site for the New York State Training School for Boys.

d. Extending the period of parole of patients from State hospitals, and permitting the voluntary admission of patients to State hospitals.

e. Authorizing counties to provide salaries for probation officers.

6. The Association had under the oversight of its various branches and committees on October 1, 1908, 1,082 children who had been placed in families with or without payment for board, or were with their mothers in situations. Of these children 469 were in free homes, and 566 with their mothers in situations. If these children were collected in one institution, the expenditures for site and buildings would certainly be at least \$500,000 and the annual expenditure for maintenance not less than \$100,000. Under the present plan there has been no expense for land or buildings, and only about \$10,000 per year for placing out and subsequent supervision. The superior advantages of family life for these young children are not less marked, and are far more important to the community, than the incidental economy of the plan. The work for children has been carried on by the following committees and branches:

a. The committee on assisting and providing situations in the country for destitute mothers with infants, secured 705 situations for homeless women with their babies during the year, and had 927 women with babies under its care.

b. The committee on placing-out and supervision of children in families, has found permanent free homes in carefully selected families for 86 destitute children, nearly all of whom were public charges, and has exercised a careful supervision over these children, as well as over 261 placed out in preceding years. A special agent has been employed since November 15, 1907, to secure children for placing-out from institutions and officials in many parts of the State, and to bring to the attention of officials and institution managers the advantages of placing children in families and the best methods of carrying on such work.

c. The work of assisting the Association's county committees in establishing and maintaining agencies for dependent children in co-operation with county boards of supervisors, has been actively prosecuted during the year, a special agent having been employed since December 1st for this purpose. In addition to the agencies already organized for the city and town of Newburgh and the counties of Columbia and Rockland, agencies have been started during the year in Schenectady and Montgomery counties, and a large amount of preliminary work towards the establishment of such agencies has been done in Suffolk, Nassau, Rensselaer, Herkimer, Oneida, Dutchess, and other counties.*

BILLS THAT BECAME LAW.

I. Prevention of Tuberculosis.

In the course of the campaign for the prevention of tuberculosis in New York State outside of New York City, begun October 1, 1907, it soon became evident that the chief factor in the control of this, as of other communicable diseases, must be the local health officer. Every square foot of territory in the State is under the jurisdiction of some local health officer. Ordinarily there is one in each city and one in each town. There are no county health officers. Our relations with local health officers in the cities in which our educational campaign was carried on indicated that while these health officers were desirous of performing their duties effectively, they were greatly hampered by the fact

* Since the date of this report agencies have been organized and have begun work in Herkimer, Oneida and Dutchess counties.

that no authoritative legislation had been enacted indicating even in general terms the nature and scope of their duties in connection with tuberculosis. The uncertainty of popular support of such measures as they might take, for which they could point to no specific and detailed mandate, made powerfully for inaction. Our committee on the prevention of tuberculosis collected the statutes of all states in the Union bearing upon tuberculosis, and made a careful and comparative statement of these laws. It found that in several states, including those in which most substantial progress had been made in the prevention and control of tuberculosis, the powers and duties of local health officers were defined in detail. Similar provisions existed in the sanitary codes of several large cities, notably New York City. A special committee of the committee on tuberculosis framed a bill, selecting provisions from the statutes of other states which had stood the test of experience, modifying them in many particulars so as to bring them into harmony with the general system of law and administration in this State, and omitting some provisions altogether. The bill was considered and revised by the committee on the prevention of tuberculosis, and with the approval of the board of managers, was submitted to the Legislature, being introduced in the Senate by Hon. Owen Cassidy, chairman of the committee on public health, on March 19, 1908. After two informal hearings before the committee, the bill was reported for the consideration of the Senate; and was passed on April 22, receiving twenty-nine affirmative votes, twenty-six being necessary for its passage. On the following day it was passed by the Assembly, without division. It received the approval of the Governor on May 19th.

Among the provisions of the bill are:

Registration of all tuberculosis patients with local health authorities, the register being protected from publicity. Local health authorities are required to provide for the free examination of sputum at the request of any physician. Premises vacated by the death or removal of a tuberculosis patient must be reported to the local health authorities; must be inspected by them; must be disinfected, cleansed or renovated in accordance with their instructions; must not be re-occupied until disinfected, cleansed or reno-

vated. Health officers must send to physicians reporting cases of tuberculosis a printed statement and report, approved by the State Commissioner of Health, enumerating such procedure and precautions as may be necessary, for which they shall receive the fee of \$1.00 or, if unwilling or unable to take such steps, shall so certify to the health authorities, and the duty shall thereupon devolve upon the health authorities, who for the performance thereof shall receive a similar sum.

Among the many expressions of opinion submitted to Governor Hughes in favor of the bill, was one by Dr. William H. Welch, president of the board of trustees of the Rockefeller Institute of Medical Research, in the course of which Dr. Welch said:

"The enactment of this bill into law, and the execution of the law, will place the State of New York in the front rank among those governments which are most active and successful in the control of tuberculosis."

It is doubtful whether any measure framed by the State Charities Aid Association, at any time in its history, is of greater importance to the well-being of the people of this State. It is not to be expected that the new law will be carried into effect fully in all portions of the State immediately. Its complete enforcement must necessarily be a matter of time.

Local health officers upon whom the chief responsibility rests, will now have an authoritative statement not only of their powers, but also of their duties, in this connection, and the statute itself will be one of the chief factors in developing a public opinion which will demand the enforcement of its provisions. It will naturally be a part of the work of this Association to promote a general knowledge of the provisions of the new law, and to assist in securing its enforcement throughout the State.

2. Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum.

In 1907 this Association, at the request of the Speaker of the Assembly, prepared a bill which became law providing for a commission to select a site for the Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum, for the care of epileptic and feeble-minded persons needing institutional care. This commission, consisting of Hon. William R. Stewart, chairman, Mr. Alexander C. Proudfit, sec-

retary, and Mr. Franklin B. Kirkbride, reported to the Legislature of 1908 in favor of the purchase of a site of 1,270 acres, with an additional square mile for purposes of water supply, located at Thiells station, Rockland county, N. Y. Because of the unusual demands upon the State treasury, and also in part because of the fact that the commission recommended the purchase of a site to cost \$188,575, which seemed to some members of the Legislature larger than would be required, there was some hesitation on the part of the Legislature in acting upon the report of the commission. A very substantial demonstration of public opinion in support of the measure was made, in which the Association joined with many others, and the desirability of purchasing all the land recommended was conclusively shown. In the closing days of the session the bill for the purchase of the entire site was passed and it became a law by the approval of the Governor.

3. *New York State Training School for Boys.*

It is now six years since the Legislature first committed itself to the substitution of an institution upon the cottage plan, located in the country, for the present House of Refuge occupying obsolete and unsuitable buildings on Randall's Island in New York City. The commission first appointed, consisting of State officers ex-officio, after three years of existence, reported in 1907 that it had been unable to agree upon a site and recommended that it be discontinued and that a new commission be appointed. This suggestion was adopted by the Legislature, and in July, 1907, the Governor appointed as such commission, Hon. Dennis McCarthy of Syracuse, and Messrs. Isaac Townsend and Homer Folks of New York City. The commission reported to the Legislature of 1908 recommending the acquisition of a site on the Hudson river a few miles below Poughkeepsie. Owing to an active and organized opposition on the part of the authorities of Vassar College, the bill for the acquisition of the site failed of passage by the Legislature. In the closing days of the session, however, a bill was passed appropriating one hundred and twenty-five thousand dollars (\$125,000) and authorizing the commission not only to select but also to acquire, with the approval of the State Board of Charities and the Governor, a suitable site for the New York State Training

School for Boys. The commission is at the time of the date of this report engaged in the selection of such a site.*

4. Longer Parole from State Hospitals and Voluntary Admissions.

The State hospitals for the insane, in common with the general hospitals, are fast realizing the importance of a better adjustment of the life of the patient within the hospital to that which has gone before and that which is to come after. For a long time the law has permitted the parole of patients from State hospitals for a period not to exceed thirty days and their return to the hospital without a new commitment at any time during this period, if in the judgment of the hospital authorities, the patient's condition requires such return. It has often happened, however, that thirty days is an entirely inadequate time in which to judge of the patient's ability to adapt himself to the normal life of the community and to maintain himself under the stress of competition without further mental impairment. Only with the approval of the State Commission in Lunacy could the parole be renewed. The work of this Association in the after-care of patients discharged recovered from State hospitals, has very clearly indicated that a longer period of parole, extending the period of supervision by the hospital authorities over the patient, and permitting for a longer time his return without a new commitment, in case of necessity, is extremely desirable. A recommendation to this effect was submitted to the State Commission in Lunacy on March 11, 1908, and the Commission framed and submitted to the Legislature a bill to carry the recommendation into effect.

An exceedingly unfortunate instance in connection with a person's voluntarily applying for admission to a State hospital and not being received, and almost immediately thereafter disappearing and being drowned, raised the question of authorizing voluntary admissions to State hospitals. Such a statute has been in effect in Massachusetts since 1905. Correspondence with the Massachusetts authorities indicated that no unfavorable results had developed and that in a considerable number of instances the possibility of voluntary admissions had been availed of by patients

* Since this date a site has been selected and acquired at Yorktown Heights, Westchester county.

who otherwise would not have received the needed care and protection. On March 11, 1908, this Association, through its secretary, submitted to the Commission in Lunacy a statement of the Massachusetts experience, and recommended that similar legislation be enacted in this State. The Commission acted favorably upon the recommendation and submitted to the Legislature an appropriate bill. This bill, containing also the provision extending the period of parole, became law.

5. *County Probation Officers.*

One of the recommendations of the temporary State Probation Commission of 1905-06, and also of the present State Probation Commission, is that counties should be given the authority to provide salaries for probation officers which heretofore had been vested only in cities. Although county judges have been authorized to appoint probation officers, the county authorities have not been able to provide salaries for them, when such a course might seem desirable. In many cases the county rather than the city appears to be the best unit for providing probation officers. A bill framed and introduced at the request of the State Probation Commission conferring the needed authority upon county boards of supervisors, was supported by this Association and others, and became law.

6. *Boards of Managers of State Charitable Institutions.*

For many years the boards of managers of State hospitals for the insane, have been uniform as to number, term of office, method of removal, powers and duties. The boards of managers of the State charitable institutions have, however, differed in all these particulars.

A bill securing uniformity as to the number of members on each of these boards and also as to the method of appointment and removal, length of term and date of expiration of term, framed by representatives of the State Board of Charities, and favored by this Association and by others, was passed by the Legislature and became law. It is especially important, in view of the fact that in some instances members of the boards of managers of certain in-

stitutions could be removed only by the Senate upon recommendation of the Governor, and after such an inquiry as the Senate might determine to make. In intervals between the sessions of the Senate no power of removal existed except by calling a special session.

7. At the request of the Board of Managers of the New York State Training School for Girls, the secretary presented a bill authorizing that institution to board in families infants whose mothers have been committed to that institution. Formerly they were permitted to place them in institutions only. Occasionally when an institution is in quarantine it has been difficult, if not impossible, for them to comply with the law. They were also of the opinion that in many instances it would be for the well-being of the infants that they should be boarded in families rather than placed in asylums. The bill became a law without opposition.

8. For some years the annual appropriation bill has contained a provision that members of boards of managers of State charitable institutions might receive reimbursement for their traveling expenses only when attending meetings of the board, or when in attendance upon the State Board of Charities, or the Fiscal Supervisor of State Charities, by request. A year ago the Association secured a modification permitting a manager to be reimbursed for his traveling expenses incurred in inspecting the institution of which he is manager. The present session further amended this provision upon the recommendation of this Association, with the concurrence of the Fiscal Supervisor, so as to permit managers of State charitable institutions to be reimbursed for any necessary expenses incurred by them in the performance of their official duties pursuant to a resolution of the board of managers and with the approval of the Fiscal Supervisor of State Charities. It is highly important that the boards of managers, who serve entirely without compensation, should be encouraged to devote time to their institutions; the former law tended to discourage them by preventing their reimbursement for necessary expenses incurred in the course of some of their official duties.

9. The State Rifle Range at Creedmoor, L. I., borough of Queens, having become unsuitable for such use, reverted to the State and has been made available by legislation as an additional

site for the Long Island State Hospital now at Flatbush. It comprises 200 acres as against twenty acres at Flatbush. While this degree of relief for the Long Island State Hospital is extremely desirable, this Association was inclined to the opinion that the Creedmoor site, which is quite valuable, if sold for its actual value, would realize a sum which would make possible the purchase of a still more adequate site at no great distance from New York City. It therefore took no action upon the bill.

10. A bill was submitted by the Women's Prison Association, establishing a State Farm for Women, to receive women over thirty years of age, convicted of misdemeanors or lesser offenses who have been convicted more than five times in two years preceding their commitment to this institution. The farm is to provide custody, employment and outdoor treatment for delinquent women above the age for admission to State reformatories.

11. A bill providing for the appointment of a commission to inquire into the operation of inferior courts of criminal jurisdiction in cities of the first class was introduced at the request of the Charity Organization Society. The bill was amended so as to provide that the commission should consist of two members of the Senate, three members of the Assembly, and two citizens to be appointed by the Governor. In this form the bill became law.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON CHILDREN

We have had in our care this year 927 women with children. Our table of situations provided in this and in former years, reads as follows:

During the 16 months ending September 30, 1894.....	185
During the year ending September 30, 1895.....	277
During the year ending September 30, 1896.....	297
During the year ending September 30, 1897.....	311
During the year ending September 30, 1898.....	341
During the year ending September 30, 1899.....	354
During the year ending September 30, 1900.....	422
During the year ending September 30, 1901.....	441
During the year ending September 30, 1902.....	501
During the year ending September 30, 1903.....	463
During the year ending September 30, 1904.....	526

During the year ending September 30, 1905.....	590
During the year ending September 30, 1906.....	619
During the year ending September 30, 1907.....	736
During the year ending September 30, 1908.....	705
Total	<u>6,768</u>

On October 1, 1907, we had 585 women with children in care. Adding to this number 299 new women, and 43 women passed from care, but relocated during the year, the total number of mothers with children under care during the year was 927.

Of these 927 women with children, one mother and eleven babies have died in situations. The total expense of maintaining the agency during the year was \$3,212.43, an average cost for each mother and child of \$3.47.

The \$3,212.43 was used for rent, salaries, office expenses, clothing, board and lodging of our women and children.

The nationalities of the new women placed this year were as follows:

Irish	78	Swiss	3
Irish descent	37	Bohemian	3
American	45	Slav	2
German	29	Danish	1
German descent	15	Norwegian	1
Colored	25	French	1
Swedish	9	French descent	1
English	9	Italian	1
Polish	8	Dutch	1
Hungarian	8	Welsh	1
Scotch	6	Austrian	1
Finnish	5		
Russian	5	Total	<u>299</u>
Canadian	4		

The religious faith of the new women:

Roman Catholic	165
Protestant	127
Hebrew	7
Total	<u>299</u>

The social status of these 299 new women was as follows:

Deserted wives	187
Unmarried mothers	62
Widows	49
Married (husband placed with her).....	1
Total	299

The ages of the women were as follows:

Under 20 years	15
Between 20 and 30 years.....	181
Between 30 and 40 years.....	88
Over 40 years	15
Total	299

The ages of the children were as follows:

Under one year	155
Between one year and three years.....	66
Over three years	78
Total	299

Since our last report we have been reversing our usual condition of affairs and owing to the hard times have had long waiting lists of applicants for work, while the list of employers has fallen off considerably, also due to the financial depression. We have thought that we might have to resort to advertising again, our method in the early days of the agency. For some years our work has come to us after a sort of endless chain fashion, one family in a community telling another and this has brought us a much better and more reliable class of employers than came to us formerly through our advertisements in the country papers. But now that we have so many more women, we are needing a greater supply of

places than comes to us through the usual channels, and we are considering how we can best make demand and supply meet.

Effect of the Hard Times.

The hard times have sent to the office crowds of women with children whose husbands are out of work. Some men have pocketed their pride and have come to us, asking work for their wives, saying, that in these times the woman has a better chance than the man has, and if she could be comfortably placed, with the baby, at service in a family, he could shift for himself with better heart. Even with the deserters, the stress of the times has made us sift them somewhat more leniently into two classes—the elusive husband, the flitting will of the wisp, and the pseudo-deserter of the first offense, numerous enough this year. The latter is often a good fellow, with a big heart, but he lacks courage. He quails at the distress he cannot remedy. He can accept relief for his family—not for himself, and he fears it will not be forthcoming with an able-bodied man in view. With deliberate intention, unselfish, according to his light, he disappears, to make the case easier for his family. It may be with, or without the knowledge of the wife. Our sympathy for him may be a trifle weak-minded but it is at least human, and where there is no work and no bread, we are bound to accept his logic, though we disapprove his methods and we tide his family over the crisis by placing the woman in a situation with her child, knowing well that, as soon as he secures a steady job and has a little money ahead, he will come to the front and the home will be re-established.

How shall we excuse ourselves for so abetting desertion? By doing our best in each individual case to prevent another occurrence. If the wife takes a situation with her baby, in all probability it will not occur again, for if the future should find them in straits, she will know her strength and her right to share the hardships and she will turn to us for help in the tiding over. Surely one wage-earner is better than none at all, and the comfort of a well-earned home for mother and child is better, morally, than dependence upon some charitable society.

REPORT OF THE SUB-COMMITTEE ON PLACING-OUT AND SUPERVISION OF CHILDREN IN FAMILIES.

Believing that to raise the standards of placing-out methods and to extend placing-out work, were the most important needs in child-caring work in this State, and that this Association could contribute most effectively to these needs by actually doing careful placing-out work in co-operation with institutions and public officials in all parts of the State, this Association established in the summer of 1898, an agency for the placing-out and supervision of children in families.

The work of the past year may be presented in brief as follows:

Number of children in families under supervision October 1, 1907	361
Placed in free family homes during the year.....	86
Number of children formerly passed from care and re-placed	3
Total under supervision during the year.....	450
Returned to relatives who were found to be of good character and able to care for their children.....	3
Legally adpted	53
Died	2
Became of age and self-supporting	6
Returned to institutions	12
Total passed from care during the year.....	76
Remaining in families under our supervision, September 30, 1908	374
	450

The number of children transferred from one home to another during the year was 34.

The first child placed by the Agency was taken to a home August 3, 1898. From that date until September 30, 1908, 760 children have been provided with homes.

During these 10 years 1,820 applications have been received from families desiring to take children. The results of our investigation of these applications may be summarized as follows:	
Investigated and approved.....	978
Investigated and disapproved.....	648
Withdrawn because the families decided not to take children or secured them elsewhere.....	151
Referred to other societies.....	26
Still pending.....	17
	1,820

Of the 1,820 applications 1,185 were for girls, 565 for boys, 50 for either a boy or a girl, and 20 for both a boy and a girl. Of the whole number, 705 were for babies, 749 for children between two and ten years of age, and 366 for children over ten years of age.

Of the 760 children who have been placed by us, 309 are boys and 451 are girls, 424 were babies between three weeks and two years of age, 247 were between two and ten years of age, and 89 were over ten years of age.

Children have been received from 35 different counties, ranging from Suffolk on the extreme east to Cattaraugus on the extreme west and St. Lawrence on the extreme north, and have been placed in homes in 51 of the 61 counties of the State.

The 760 children placed in homes since the work began are accounted for as follows:

Legally adopted.....	271
Returned to relatives of good character who had become able to provide for them.....	31
Returned for special reasons to agencies or institutions from which the children were received.....	33

Died	24
Became of age and self-supporting	20
Placed through Children's Aid Society	3
Placed through Bureau of Dependent Children of Department of Public Charities, New York City	1
Married	3
Remaining under our oversight in families on September 30, 1908	374
	760

The most satisfactory disposition of a friendless child is to have it legally adopted by some reliable and suitable family, thus enabling it to gain the rights of which it has been deprived by misfortune, including the right to the name of its foster parents, and to the inheritance of their property. That so large a proportion of our children are legally adopted, affords us the greatest gratification. There has been a steady increase in the number of legal adoptions from year to year, as shown by the following table:

NUMBER OF LOCAL ADOPTIONS.

Year ending September 30, 1900	3
Year ending September 30, 1901	15
Year ending September 30, 1902	18
Year ending September 30, 1903	17
Year ending September 30, 1904	31
Year ending September 30, 1905	32
Year ending September 30, 1906	47
Year ending September 30, 1907	55
Year ending September 30, 1908	53
Total	271

COUNTY AGENCIES FOR DEPENDENT CHILDREN.

The excellent results of the work which has been done by the agencies for dependent children in the city and town of Newburgh and in Columbia and Rockland counties, have led the Association to feel that a similar organization in each county would result in very great improvement in the care of all dependent children within the State.

The Association also had in mind that the laws of the State provide that the commitment and care of destitute children shall rest on the Poor Law officials in the various counties, and direct that these officials shall "provide for such child or children in families, orphan asylums, hospitals or other appropriate institutions for the support and care of children as provided by law."

This task is no light one, requiring time and energy as well as special fitness and training which the Poor Law official may lack. The framers of the law apparently realized the great importance of this work as well as the limitations of the Poor Law officers and added the provision that "The board of supervisors of the several counties * * * shall take such action in the matter as may be necessary to carry out the provisions of this section."

In order to encourage the employment of county agents to act as assistants to the superintendents of the poor in the conduct of this important branch of the work, the Association on December 1, 1907, secured the services of a special agent to actively assist the county committees of the State Charities Aid Association in establishing agencies within their respective counties and to act as superintendent of such agencies.

The plan followed in the city and town of Newburgh and in Columbia and Rockland counties has been followed elsewhere. By this plan the county committee of the State Charities Aid Association enters into an agreement with the board of supervisors of the county undertaking to perform, through an agent, definite work in the investigation of cases of children already dependent as well as of those for whom care is asked, and also in placing in family homes such children as can be so placed,

the supervisors on their part agreeing to pay a certain sum monthly toward the expenses of such work.

As it is necessary to obtain this co-operation of the boards of supervisors, and as these boards as a rule meet but once a year, in November, much of the work done by this new superintendent during the past year was preliminary to a presentation of the matter to the boards when they should meet. Agencies were, however, established in Schenectady county on February 1, 1908, and in Montgomery county on July 15, 1908, and excellent results in each county have been obtained.*

SUMMARY OF THE ASSOCIATION'S WORK FOR DESTITUTE CHILDREN.

It appears from the reports of the various committees engaged in child-caring work that on October 1, 1908, the State Charities Aid Association, through its central office and its committees, had under its supervision in family homes 1,082 children, distributed as follows:

Boarding in families under the supervision of:

Rockland, Schenectady and Montgomery county agencies	17	
Nassau county committee	30	
		47

In free permanent homes under the supervision of:

Allegany county committee	45	
Newburgh agency for dependent children	39	
Rockland county agency for dependent children	11	
Central office in co-operation with county committees	374	
		469

With mothers in situations in the country under the over-

sight of the mothers' and babies' committee	566	
		1,082

* Since the date of this report agencies have been organized in Herkimer, Oneida and Dutchess Counties, and the question is being considered by a committee of the Board of Supervisors in Rensselaer County and by the Town Officials in Nassau County.

In addition to the above the committees which maintain agencies to co-operate with public officials in caring for dependent children, had under their supervision in institutions 259 children distributed as follows:

Newburgh agency for dependent children.....	21
Columbia county agency for dependent children.....	55
Rockland county agency for dependent children.....	19
Schenectady county agency for dependent children.....	145
Montgomery county agency for dependent children.....	19
	259

FIRST ANNUAL REPORT OF THE SPECIAL COMMITTEE ON THE PREVENTION OF TUBERCULOSIS.

As announced last year, a special committee was appointed in the spring of 1907 to organize work for the prevention of tuberculosis throughout the State of New York outside New York City. It was not possible to secure an agent until the early fall, and the work began actively on October 1, 1907, when Mr. John A. Kingsbury entered upon his duties as assistant secretary of the committee. The work has expanded so rapidly as to require since then the addition of six assistants, devoting their entire time to this department.

As tuberculosis is one of the chief causes of dependence, it is felt that this effort to prevent it is closely related to the primary objects for which the Association was organized. No work undertaken by the Association has met with so prompt and widespread a response and has in so short a time enlisted such effective support as this work for the proper treatment and prevention of tuberculosis in the cities and rural communities of the State. The following is a condensed report of the programme adopted and the results already achieved:*

* This report includes references to certain events which occurred during the three months following the close of the fiscal year.

The committee on the prevention of tuberculosis has thus far committed itself to the following lines of work :

I. INVESTIGATION.—As to the prevalence of tuberculosis and the measures in force looking towards its reduction and prevention.

II. LOCAL EDUCATION CAMPAIGNS.—To awaken cities and villages to the realization that tuberculosis is a communicable, curable and preventable disease; and to point out the simple, prophylactic measures which should be instituted.

III. ORGANIZATION OF LOCAL COMMITTEES.—Through which the campaign of education can be continued and constructive work done.

IV. PUBLICITY.—Issuing of weekly press notices relating to tuberculosis, and keeping the newspapers supplied with all news items of special importance, relating to this subject.

V. A BUREAU OF INFORMATION.—To supply literature and to answer all inquiries concerning institutions for the treatment of tuberculosis, out-door sleeping appliances, etc.

VI. EDUCATION OF RURAL COMMUNITIES.—By sending small exhibits to State and county fairs, distributing circulars and giving phonograph lectures on tuberculosis.

VII. EDUCATION OF LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.—By sending a competent member of organized labor to lecture to the laboring classes, with a view to inducing them to undertake to provide relief for their fellows.

VIII. LEGISLATION.—To secure adequate State, county and municipal control of tuberculosis.

The results obtained may be summarized as follows:

I. INVESTIGATION.—Investigation has been made in nine second and third class cities of the State of New York, the results of which (filling from 20 to 60 typewritten pages), have been used to secure the adoption of local measures against tuberculosis.

II. LOCAL EDUCATIONAL CAMPAIGNS.—The committee has conducted local educational campaigns in 14 villages and cities of the second and third class, along the following lines:

1. *Exhibitions*.—The large exhibition of the New York State Department of Health has been shown in 16 different places, in

the cities and villages referred to, remaining from three to ten days in each place, and has been visited by approximately 100,000 people, composing groups of teachers, physicians, ministers, labor unions, women's clubs, fraternal orders, Y. M. C. A.'s, etc., etc., and also to Italians, Polanders and Germans as groups.

2. *Out-door stereopticon exhibitions*.—Have been held in four cities, thousands of people who would not take the trouble to come to exhibition hall being reached in this manner.

3. *Stereopticon lectures* have been given to the above mentioned groups in all the cities visited, 225 lecturers having spoken to recorded audiences numbering 43,573 people.

4. *Distribution of Literature*.—At these lectures and meetings, approximately 60,000 circulars relating to tuberculosis have been distributed.

5. *Aphorisms* to the number of 49,100, giving simple information as to the disease, its prevention and cure, have been distributed on cards placed in pay envelopes of factory employees.

6. *Local papers* in each city have given, to the tuberculosis news items including such lectures, from one column a day to the entire edition of the paper at the close of the local campaign; as was the case in both Auburn and Albany.

7. *Mass meetings* have been held in the various cities in which 54 prominent persons have spoken, including Governor Hughes, Hon. Joseph H. Choate and Dr. William H. Welch.

III. ORGANIZATION OF PERMANENT COMMITTEES.—In 13 of the cities and villages, permanent committees on the prevention of tuberculosis have been organized for the purpose of continuing the educational work along the lines above mentioned, and the following results have already been accomplished:

1. *Dispensaries* for free examination of tuberculosis patients have been established in Utica, Rome, Troy, Albany and Schenectady, where already more than 200 patients are being treated.

2. *Visiting Nurses* have been employed to work in connection with each of these dispensaries, and the city of Geneva has also employed a nurse, making six in all.

3. *Laboratories* for free examination of sputum have been established in three of these cities.

4. Relief for Needy Consumptives, in the form of milk, eggs and warm clothing, is now provided by the Charities Department in four of the cities mentioned.

5. *Hospitals and pavilions* for advanced and moderately advanced cases, have been established, or are in the course of construction, in Rome, Troy, Albany, Schenectady, Canandaigua and Elmira, requiring a total expenditure of probably not less than \$300,000 for construction, and close to \$75,000 annually for maintenance.

6. *Day camps* have been established in several of these places by the Red Cross committee, which is affiliated with the local committees above mentioned; the money for these amounting in all to approximately \$10,000.

7. *Applications for Ray Brook*.—The State Hospital for Incipient Tuberculosis at Ray Brook has been taxed far beyond its capacity by applications from the various cities where the educational campaign was conducted, and local committees have been organized. This is especially significant in view of the fact that a year ago, when this campaign was started, the superintendent at Ray Brook was complaining that, although this institution existed for the purpose of administering to poor consumptives, it was unable to fill the beds. Dr. Herbert M. King, Superintendent of the Loomis Sanatorium, and others in charge of similar institutions, have made statements to the same effect, viz.: that within the past year the capacities of their institutions have been greatly overtaxed.

8. *Educational propaganda*, such as described under section 2, has been continued by practically all of the local committees in the cities and villages mentioned with notable results in some instances; for example:

a. In Albany and Waterloo systematic and regular press work has been done, excellent articles being prepared in the former city by Bishop Nelson, and in the latter by Dr. Bellows.

b. Lectures have been given during the noon hour at large factories and considerable literature has been distributed in this manner.

c. Enamelled tin signs and Venetian posters, containing information concerning tuberculosis and directing readers to the dispensary

or relief stations, have been furnished to the local committees and distributed and posted by them.

d. The privilege of using the backs of street car transfers, for the purpose of disseminating information pertaining to the cure and prevention of tuberculosis, and directing attention to the fact of the establishment of a free dispensary, has been secured in the following cities: Troy, Albany, Utica, Rome, Little Falls, Herkimer, Ilion, Frankfort and Mohawk. Thousands of these transfers have already been distributed, and millions will be distributed within the course of the next year. The first issue of these transfers in Troy amounted to 1,400,000.

e. Ordinances and regulations protecting the food supply, and prohibiting careless spitting, have been passed in several of the cities through the efforts of the local committees.

IV. PUBLICITY.—The following results along the lines of systematic publicity have been accomplished:

1. *Weekly Press notices*, relating to the movement for the prevention of tuberculosis, have been sent out regularly to 248 dailies, 142 weeklies and 90 monthlies, mostly in the State of New York.

2. *Plate matter* containing illustrated material relating to both the general movement and the special work in connection with county fairs, has been sent to 162 country papers, such papers publishing a full page of the material.

3. *Special editions* on tuberculosis were issued by the *Auburn Daily Citizen* and by the *Albany Official Record*, both of which have been circulated widely, and have been sent upon request to various parts of the United States.

4. *Special articles* have been prepared for Sunday papers, and for magazines. Such articles, illustrated, have appeared in the *New York Sunday Tribune*, and in the *Journal of Out-Door Life*, and others not illustrated, in *Charities and the Commons*.

5. *Newspaper exchange*.—Two thousand six hundred and twenty-two copies of papers containing articles relating to tuberculosis have been mailed to those interested in the movement in the various cities where local campaigns have been conducted.

V. A BUREAU OF INFORMATION has been established to take care of the routine correspondence, requests for literature, and informa-

tion concerning institutions, and inquiries relating to various aspects of the work. Within the past three months this correspondence has increased at least three-fold. Requests are coming in daily for literature, lantern slides, material for small exhibits, information concerning out-door sleeping porches, inquiries relating to institutions for advanced and moderately advanced cases of tuberculosis, for gramophone records, formation of day camps, plans for the organization of local committees, material for lectures, inquiries about the law, requests for Venetian posters and sanitary bulletins. These inquiries and requests come from ministers, doctors, health officers, county and city officials, charitable organizations, visiting nurses, libraries, teachers, superintendents of public and private schools, and are far in excess of the facilities at the command of the committee to give them proper and adequate attention; but this department of information endeavors to do the best it can with such requests. One of these requests came from Dr. Newell Dwight Hillis, of Plymouth Church, Brooklyn, for 50,000 copies of the little leaflet distributed at the county fairs, to be referred to later. This request was so extraordinary that we felt obliged to ask Dr. Hillis to pay the wholesale price for this leaflet, which we did, and the request was granted. Numerous packages, containing from 1,000 to 5,000 copies of this little leaflet, have been sent to superintendents of schools and to librarians, ministers and village health officials upon their request.

VI. THE EDUCATION OF RURAL COMMUNITIES.—The committee assembled the material for, and constructed, six small tuberculosis exhibitions, which were shown at the State Fair at Syracuse and at thirty-five of the more important county fairs, during the months of August, September and October. Each exhibition was equipped with a large Columbia gramophone with special records containing brief lectures on tuberculosis, and with an ample supply of literature in the form of a little eight-page leaflet, which was written especially for this occasion, and for which so many requests have been received since its distribution in this manner.

It was impossible to measure the exact results accomplished in this attempt to educate the rural population of the State. Doubtless, however, the great numbers of inquiries referred to under section 5 have come largely as the result of this work. A fair idea

of the results which may be expected to flow from this line of work, may be measured from the following:

Total number of fairs visited.....	36
Total number of copies of literature distributed.....	344,640
Total attendance recorded at the fairs visited.....	1,036,542
Total number of miles traveled with exhibitions.....	5,814
Total number of square feet occupied by exhibits....	10,589

It will be seen that the attendance at the fairs, at which the exhibits were shown, amounted to considerably over a million, and that literature was placed in the hands of almost 350,000 of these people. It is safe to add that the lectures by the gramophone, giving definite information about tuberculosis, were heard by more than a million people.

VII. EDUCATION OF LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.—During the course of the past year's educational campaigns, a great effort has been made to reach and interest the members of labor organizations, in order that the information about tuberculosis might be disseminated speedily among the working people of the State. In every city visited special meetings were held for labor unions, and the co-operation of the leaders has been secured. As a direct result of this effort, a pavilion, providing for the care of twelve patients, has been established in the city of Albany by the Central Federation of Labor. In promoting this work most valuable assistance was rendered by Mr. Philip V. Danahy, of the Cigarmakers' Union, who has given his time gratis to the committee, and has gone about from city to city lecturing to the unions where the campaign was being conducted. The attention of the labor unions all over the country has been attracted to the Albany movement, and at the meeting of the State Federation, held in Rochester in September, a resolution was passed commending the efforts of the State Charities Aid Association, and urging labor organizations in all cities to follow the example set by the Albany Federation of Labor. Since that time numerous requests have been received, both by this committee and the Albany Federation of Labor, for information concerning the Albany movement, and requesting that Mr. Danahy come to these cities and speak before the local Federations of

Labor. In order to meet this demand, Mr. Danahy has just been added to the staff of this committee, and is now preparing to organize a vigorous campaign among the labor unions of the State.

VIII. LEGISLATION.—The law drafted by the State Charities Aid Association, and passed by the last Legislature, signed by Governor Hughes the first of June, entitled, An act defining the powers and duties of local health officers and boards of health in the matter of the protection of the people of the State of New York from the disease known as tuberculosis, has been attracting wide attention among the health officials and physicians in the State. At the annual conference of health officers held in Albany from the first to the third of December, 1908, such prominence was given to the discussion of this law that it was said that nothing else of importance transpired. New York State was awarded the silver medal at the International Congress on the basis of this law, and it was stated that had it not been for the fact that the law was too recently passed to have yet been given a fair trial, the State might have received the gold medal.

The committee has been instrumental in securing local legislation and regulations relative to the spitting nuisance, and at present has under consideration the matter of legislation providing for a uniform provision for the care of advanced cases of tuberculosis.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON HOSPITALS.

The standing committee on hospitals has had an executive secretary, Mr. Bailey B. Burritt, since June 1, 1908, devoting his whole time to the work of the committee. This makes it possible for the committee to increase greatly its efficiency, and it is hoped that permanent provision for such a secretary may be made.

The committee has printed and circulated during the past year two reports, one on the ambulance service in Greater New York, and the other on new hospitals needed in Greater New York. One of the chief recommendations of the association made as a result of the study of the ambulance service is that the city establish, under the supervision of the trustees of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals and the Department of Public Charities, ambulance

bureaus which shall have general direction and control of all the ambulance service in Greater New York.

As a result of the study on hospitals, the committee outlined what it believed to be a well co-ordinated plan of hospital development for New York City. This plan includes small emergency relief stations with eight or ten beds, local district hospitals of 100 to 200 beds and general hospitals with from 1,000 to 1,500 beds, as well as convalescent hospitals, hospitals for incurables, special hospitals for tuberculosis and for acute contagious diseases.

Provision is also made for co-ordinating the work of public and private hospitals and for a better co-ordination of the work of hospitals and philanthropic agencies, assisting in the care of the sick in their homes. After making a census of the present hospital facilities and the amount and character of sickness now existing and likely to occur and a study of the prospective growth of population, the committee made specific recommendations in regard to the location of the various types of hospitals now needed, as well as to the location of those which will be necessary at some time before 1920. This is the first definite attempt to outline comprehensive plans for hospital development for New York City.

The committee appeared before the hospital commission appointed by the mayor of the city of New York and urged its recommendations. The recommendations with regard to the ambulance service were practically adopted by that commission. The commission has also arranged to print in full the reports of the State Charities Aid Association on "Ambulance Service in Greater New York" and on "New Hospitals Needed in Greater New York" as a part of its report.

CITY CHILDREN'S HOSPITALS AND SCHOOLS.

The committee to visit the New York City children's hospitals and schools has increased its membership and its activities in several directions. It has done some very effective work through visiting children discharged from the institution, in their own homes. As a result of these visits it was concluded that the employment of a visitor by the Department of Public Charities to carry on similar work would effect a saving to the department in a number of cases through instruction to the parents in the proper care of the children and the prevention of their retur

the children's hospitals and schools. It was also shown that through the fuller knowledge of home conditions gained by such a visitor, and through securing the co-operation of charitable societies, hospitals, dispensaries, etc., it would be possible to carry more fully into effect the curative work done for the child in the institution. The committee has been especially active in visiting the epileptics and cripples, in making suggestions for the better care of these children, and in securing the admission to special institutions of four blind children for whose education there was no adequate special provision at the children's hospitals and schools. The committee has made a careful study of the provision for the special care and education of blind children in the city, and has prepared a statement of the facts, showing the lack of adequate special provision for the feeble-minded and very backward blind children, and also those of kindergarten age. This statement is to be made the basis of definite recommendations to the proper authorities, for further provision for these children.

Many visits have been made by the chairman and other members of the committee to special institutions for children, of local and national reputation, as a preparation for reports and other suggestions for the care and education of the children at the hospitals and schools. Through the kindness of the Island Mission the committee has been able to provide pictures, books, toys, and subscriptions to magazines, for many of the boys and girls. It has emphasized the advantage of employing skilled or specially trained attendants for these children, rather than more numerous but less efficient helpers, and some of its suggestions to this end have been favorably received, and carried into effect by the department.

Suggestions through a member of the committee as to certain shrubs, etc., suitable for Randall's Island, have been approved, and the shrubs have been planted.

EASTERN NEW YORK STATE CUSTODIAL ASYLUM.

Credit may be taken by the New York City visiting committee for the part of its officers and members in securing the establishment of the Eastern State Custodial Asylum in Rockland county. Acting in part upon a suggestion by Miss Marion R. Taber, chair-
of the committee on the city children's hospitals and schools,

Mr. Folks, the president of the visiting committee, prepared a bill which became law, and pursuant to which the Governor appointed in 1907 a commission of three to select a site for such an asylum. One of the members of the commission was Mr. Alexander C. Proudfit, the vice-chairman of the Manhattan and Bronx committee of the New York City visiting committee. Upon the recommendation of this commission an appropriation of \$188,575 was made by the 1908 Legislature to purchase the site selected at Thiells. Not only will the establishment of the Eastern State Custodial Asylum relieve the New York City children's hospitals and schools, but it will increase the facilities for training custodial cases committed to it, in forms of manual labor, and will, to a great extent, do away with the just ground for complaint on the part of parents and relatives of children of this class who have been sent to State institutions; namely, that the expense of visiting their children is almost prohibitive.

TUBERCULOSIS.

The committee has emphasized especially the need for additional provision for advanced cases of tuberculosis. In the letter to the commissioner of public charities of March 24, 1908, mentioned above, the great need for such additional provision was urged. In view of the striking inadequacy of the present accommodations, and the impossibility of speedily erecting more permanent buildings, it was recommended that inexpensive wooden buildings of the lean-to, or tent form of construction, be provided in addition to the present accommodations at the Tuberculosis Infirmary of the Metropolitan Hospital. The committee also supported the request of the commissioner to the board of estimate and apportionment for \$600,000 for new infirmary buildings, by a statement of the wretched conditions of overcrowding existing at the Metropolitan Infirmary and at Bellevue Hospital. In July, 1908, an appropriation of \$300,000 for a new building was approved by the mayor.

LENGTH OF TRAINING FOR NURSES.

Among other important work done by the committee during the year has been the submission of recommendations to the departments of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals and of public charities, based in part upon the study of the opinions of 145 superintend-

ents of training schools or of hospitals collected during the previous year. The object of the committee in making its canvass of the training schools was to learn the effect upon the number of applicants of the lengthening of the course of training for nurses from two years to three, and also to secure a comprehensive expression of opinion from the superintendents of the training schools as to the relative merits of the two years', two and one-half years', and three years' courses. The consensus of opinion of those replying, was that the number of desirable applicants was not decreased to any great extent by the lengthening of the course of training, and that if there were any such decrease it would probably be offset by the fact that the entire force of nurses would be changed once every two years instead of every three years. The opinion of the superintendents of the schools was greatly in favor of the three years' course for general training.

URGING NEEDED APPROPRIATIONS.

In view of the more or less general agitation for an economical budget for the city for 1909, and in view of the need of the public charitable institutions for more adequate appropriations for the employment of competent helpers for the care of the sick, aged and infirm, and of sufficient funds for necessary supplies (as discussed in more detail in the report of the committee), the visiting committee has made special efforts to present the needs of these institutions strongly to the board of estimate and apportionment. A careful analysis has been made of the estimates of the departments of Public Charities and of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals for their expenses for 1909, with a view to submitting the results to the board of estimate. Preparations have been made also to supplement a formal statement to that board by arousing the interest of the public in the highly undesirable conditions resulting from insufficient appropriations in the past, through newspaper comment and through taking part in the "Budget Exhibit," under the auspices of the Tax-Payers' Conference.

The committee also strongly supported the request of the Commissioner of Public Charities, of April 10, 1908, to the board of estimate, for new buildings and permanent improvements, in the statement of May 5th, included in the list of communications above.

REPORT OF THE SUB-COMMITTEE ON STATE CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.

The Legislature of 1908 provided for the acquisition of a site for the Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum at Thiells, Rockland county, and authorized the acquisition of a site for the New York State Training School for Boys, which has been selected near Yorktown Heights in Westchester county. It is hoped that provision will be made by adequate appropriations for the opening of these institutions during the coming year, and that suitable legislation will be enacted providing for the appointment of boards of managers and for their administration.

In our report last year, we commented upon the great diversity in the fundamental law governing the organization of the various State charitable institutions, and recommended that in certain respects their organic law should be more uniform. A step was taken in this direction by the Legislature of 1908, as described elsewhere, in making a provision that each board should consist of seven members and in giving the Governor the power to remove managers, not previously possessed by him in the case of several of these institutions.

The establishment of a custodial asylum in the eastern part of the State should relieve the Craig Colony of a large number of custodial cases from this section, and clear the way for the better classification of the feeble-minded and epileptic in all the four State institutions in the central part of the State. Happily there seems to be almost complete consensus of opinion on the part of those most interested in the institutions for the feeble-minded as to the future use of the institutions for feeble-minded men, women and children at Rome, Newark and Syracuse. The plan of classification proposed is described at some length in the report of our visitors to the Rome State Custodial Asylum, and is in brief as follows: That provision should hereafter be made at Rome for male inmates only; that Newark should care for feeble-minded women of all ages and classes, and that Syracuse should care only for feeble-minded girls of teachable age. This plan involves the

establishment at Rome of a department for feeble-minded boys of teachable age, equipped with suitable educational facilities, and adequately separated from the custodial group. Whether it will involve also the immediate enlargement of the Newark State Custodial Asylum by the addition of new buildings, depends partly on the extent to which the institutions in the central part of the State will be relieved by the new institution in the southeastern section, and partly on the extent to which the present buildings at Newark can be altered to accommodate a larger population. As stated in our report last year, it is our opinion that minor structural changes in the cottages at the Newark Asylum would probably increase the capacity of this institution sufficiently to enable it to receive from 150 to 200 additional inmates, while the more complete centralization of certain departments would still further add to its capacity.

If the new custodial institution in the southeastern part of the State is to receive in future all feeble-minded persons from this section, the institutions at Syracuse, Newark, Rome and Sonyea will be relieved to a very great extent. The following table shows the total population of these institutions, as compared with the number of inmates from the counties in the first, second and ninth judicial districts. These districts include the counties in New York City and on Long Island, and the additional Hudson river counties of Westchester, Rockland, Orange, Putnam and Dutchess:

	Syracuse.	Newark.	Rome.	Sonyea.	Total.
Inmates, October 1, 1907...	542	669	957	1,081	3,249
From 1st, 2d and 9th Ju- dicial Districts	185	245	456	588	1,474

On the same date, October 1, 1907, there were 543 feeble-minded inmates in county almshouses and 916 in city and town almshouses and hospitals. These 916 were almost entirely in the southeastern part of the State. On this date there were also 118 epileptics in county almshouses and 224 epileptics in city and town institutions, most of them probably of the custodial class.

Several of the State institutions are in need of enlargement. The New York State Training School for Girls has been unable for more than a year to receive many wayward girls committed to its care by the courts. It is hoped that provision will be made

for the construction of additional cottages as soon as possible in the coming year.

The New York State Hospital for Incipient Tuberculosis has also been obliged to refuse admission to many cases approved by its examiners as suitable for care in this institution. A delay of several months in sending to a sanatorium a person suffering from tuberculosis is an extremely serious matter, as in this length of time the case may become incurable. With the continuance of the educational campaign, which is being carried on throughout the State, as described in the report of our special committee on the prevention of tuberculosis, it is to be expected that there will be largely increased demands for the sanatorium treatment of incipient cases. It is to be hoped that the capacity of the Ray Brook State Hospital will therefore be largely increased at the earliest possible date.

NEWARK STATE CUSTODIAL ASYLUM.

The institution has been visited quarterly by the Association's faithful and efficient visitors, who have presented frequent reports on the condition and needs of the asylum. All departments of the institution have been ordinarily found in good order, but as very few structural improvements have been made during the past year, the urgent needs remain the same. As stated in our report last year, a large centrally-located laundry should replace the present inadequate room used for this purpose; and there should be a good bakery with proper facilities for storage of bread. A morgue is needed so that it may not be necessary to lay out the dead in the hospital bathroom. An industrial building should be provided and the industries centralized, thus economizing the large amount of space now used by the small industrial rooms scattered about through the cottages and dormitory buildings. When such a building is provided there may be a greater incentive to the establishment of a larger variety of industries, such as are carried on successfully in other State institutions.

It is to be hoped that the urgent need of more land will be favorably considered in the near future. This institution seems bound to grow, and the increase in the buildings should be accompanied by an increase in acreage for farm and garden uses. It

would seem as if the State might as well condemn the piece of property consisting of fifty acres, constituting the other half of the hill on which the institution is located, as this property logically belongs to the asylum land and might greatly facilitate its development.

ROME STATE CUSTODIAL ASYLUM.

The following report from our visitors, though dealing largely with events which have occurred since the close of the fiscal year, is of such immediate interest that we print it in this year's report:

"On November 10th we visited the Rome State Custodial Asylum. On the same day there was held there an informal meeting of the Board of Managers of the Asylum, six of the board being present, with President W. R. Stewart and Secretary Robert W. Hill of the State Board of Charities and State Architect Franklin B. Ware. Much the greater part of our time was spent at this meeting, which accounts for the fact that our report contains little regarding the institution not there learned or talked over. We believe, however, that the insight into the problems of the institution thus acquired is even more valuable than the results of our usual tour of inspection. As you are aware, a disastrous fire on November 1st completely destroyed one of the largest of the buildings, the one known as building 'B,' — it being one of the oldest of the former Oneida County Home buildings purchased by the State at the time of the founding of the Custodial Asylum. The burned building was situated between building 'C' and a long corridor which leads to the administration building and the westerly group. A contract having recently been let for a new building to replace building 'C,' the meeting of the tenth instant was held for the purpose of determining whether the erection of a new building or buildings to replace 'B' would not make it advisable to modify to some extent the plans for the one already contracted for, as well as to talk over matters connected with the future policy of the institution.

"The condition of things brought about by the fire, necessitating the immediate consideration of these new building problems, was discussed by those who were present at the meeting, in relation to the great desirability of a better correlation of the State insti-

tutions for the care of the feeble-minded, as affected by the sex-problem. As your visitors have repeatedly remarked, and as the managers of the institution are keenly aware, the present policy of the State in grouping both men and women at the Rome Asylum is both expensive and unsatisfactory. President Stewart of the State Board of Charities presented the case most cogently, showing that the State Board is also fully cognizant of the immediate need of a change of policy.

"In view of the present emergency created by the fire, he suggested that the time is now most opportune for the managers of the institution to take immediate action toward relieving it of the necessity of caring for female inmates, at the same time enlarging its facilities for the care of males. The plan which he outlined contemplates the removal of the females now cared for in Rome to Newark or Syracuse, while the males now cared for at Syracuse would be transferred to Rome. The opinion of those present was freely and unanimously expressed in favor of some such plan, and it was hoped that, through conference between the managers of the institutions named, and with the co-operation of the Legislature, a satisfactory solution of the problem along these lines may soon be effected.

"It would necessitate, of course, the erection of additional buildings at Newark, as well as the establishment of a separate colony at Rome for the brighter boys now cared for in the Syracuse institution, but the real estate available at both institutions makes such changes easily possible.

"In outlining provisional plans for a new group of buildings designed to replace buildings 'B' and 'C,' the State Architect took into consideration this desirable and, it is hoped, probable change in policy. The location of a new hospital building was also considered, it being deemed wise, in case the policy of the institution can be changed as above indicated, to place such a building at the western end of the present group.

"The loss to the State by the fire is estimated at \$125,000. The fire was undoubtedly of incendiary origin, as two other fires outside the buildings were started at the same time, and probably was the work of some one or more of the brighter and more crimi-

nally inclined inmates. The water supply of the asylum comes from that of the city of Rome through a small pipe. This pipe, which is six inches in diameter, is too small to furnish sufficient water in time of fire, and to provide fire service. The State about ten years ago constructed a pump-well, pumping station and stand-pipe. The pump-well receives the water from the city's system and from thence the water is pumped to a standpipe. The standpipe when kept full furnishes satisfactory service, but after the contents of the well are exhausted it becomes necessary to shut off the stand pipe and pump its water direct into the asylum's piping system. This was done at the time of the recent fire. Had the fire continued in force much longer the water supply would have been insufficient. For the protection of so many valuable buildings and the lives of the inmates, the institution should have a more abundant water supply at hand, either by greater storage at the institution or by a larger main from the city's supply. Your visitors are of the opinion that the latter method is more feasible.

"A large quantity of men's and boys' clothing was stored in the upper floor of the burned building and was entirely consumed by the fire. The Superintendent tells us the prisons were unable to replenish this stock sufficiently soon and that satisfactory clothing could not be purchased at reasonable prices in the open market, and that he is endeavoring to have the clothing made at the institution. Until it is made a considerable number of the inmates will be compelled to wear their summer clothing and, in cold weather, to remain indoors.

"Another farm with farm buildings has been purchased since our last report, making a second place on which to colonize some of the boys. Forty are now accommodated on the two farms. The total area of land now belonging to the institution is about 550 acres, and there are other adjoining farms that can be purchased at reasonable prices for colony purposes.

"The trouble that to a certain extent was expected with the induced draft in building 'J' has not occurred in the three wards where the inmates are of the brighter kind and are much out of doors, but in the fourth ward, where are housed the lower types the Superintendent reports that mechanical or forced draft is needed to provide satisfactory ventilation.

"Except at the site of the burnt building, we observed the usual neatness within and without the buildings, the same kind treatment of the inmates as formerly and the same apparently efficient management.

"There are, of course, regrettable conditions of overcrowding which have been made necessary by the fact that 150 inmates who formerly occupied building 'B' must be cared for in the other buildings. As the institution was already caring for more inmates than the buildings were designed to accommodate, this condition of things is especially unfortunate, but of course, it cannot be immediately relieved. It will doubtless be dealt with as wisely as possible."

CRAIG COLONY.

The following report of a recent visit to this institution has been received from our visitors:

"We found the houses in a clean and sanitary condition and the patients well cared for.

'In some of the rooms the furnishings were somewhat inadequate, and we therefore approve Item 6 in the list of desired appropriations.

"There were reported to us several accidents caused by patients falling from open windows. We therefore recommend the placing of wooden slats across the lower half of windows in the upper stories. Some objections may be made against this suggestion, on the score of appearances, but we believe the safety and welfare of the patients should be the first consideration.

"We also urge an increase of attendants so that the patients may have proper attention and protection through the night. The surveillance, especially in the women's quarters, is so insufficient that the patients can practically come and go as they please through the night, and might be absent an hour at a time without the knowledge of the attendants. Six months ago, two women patients, mentally deficient, were criminally assaulted by one of the male attendants or night watchmen. Such outrages cannot be prevented unless the patients are carefully watched, and such supervision is impossible with the present number of attendants.

"Item 3.—In the list. The Nurses Home is certainly needed, and will have the practical value of making the nurses more contented, and willing to stay longer at the colony.

"Item 5.—Enlarging the main power plant would be practical and immediate economy, as the present system of heating the two men's quarters entails much extra labor in hauling coal and tending fires, and extra expense in the burning of anthracite coal.

"Item 10.—The addition to the laundry seems necessary as so much washing is needed for this class of patients, that the present laundry is very much overtaxed.

"Item 11.—Important to keep filter beds in good condition. New surface of twelve inches required in two of the beds.

"Item 12.—Laboratory very small and crowded, the work having outgrown the original building. An addition is necessary for the development of research.

"Item 17.—The present fire alarm system depends entirely on telephonic communication, which does not sufficiently insure safety. A modern and efficient alarm system can be installed for \$900, and this would seem of the first importance.

"Item 19.—Funds for repairs and equipment are much needed, many of the houses, owing to poor construction, are badly out of repair, plaster falling, floors settling and seams opening in wood-work and brick walls.

"The cost of maintenance is estimated as economically as possible, and it is therefore earnestly hoped that the whole amount asked for may be appropriated."

NEW YORK STATE REFORMATORY FOR WOMEN.

The following report has been received from our visitors:

"The reformatory has been visited officially five times during the year and a number of times unofficially. The cleanliness and good order, always found throughout the institution, are noteworthy and afford evidence of far-seeing care and thorough system which cannot be too strongly emphasized.

"At the last visit there were 317 women in the institution, and only five were in the disciplinary building. The propriety of detaining for a long time in the isolated cells women of nervous and hysterical temperament has been discussed with the officials

with a view to determining whether some other plan might not help them to control themselves more quickly and healthfully.

"The dressmaking and basket-weaving classes, the school work and other means of occupying and elevating the inmates are most interesting and evidently valuable helps to reformation.

"An inspection at dinner time showed that the food, while simple, was well cooked and served, and apparently in sufficient quantity. The dining rooms in the cottages look bright and cheery with flowers in the windows. The cost of food has risen during the last two years from twelve cents to thirteen cents a person because of the increased cost of supplies. This figure includes the food for both officers and inmates.

"Under the superintendent's direction some of the inmates built concrete paths and steps to the new cottages and the Industrial Building now being erected, and were rewarded for their zeal and interest in the work by a supper for which they chose the food. Their choice was pork chops and ice cream!

"Several entertainments have been given during the year for the good conduct women. The choir of St. Matthew's church gave a concert, and Mr. Frank H. Potter has very kindly given several song recitals, and lately the Hampton Quartet gave an afternoon concert. These entertainments are much appreciated and seem to be beneficial in their result. A Glee Club of about thirty members is working under the instruction of the Musical Directress, and is having success, as membership in the club is made a reward of merit and is an incentive to better behavior. The club sings at the church services, at Christmas, and other festivals, and often gives concerts for the entertainment of the other inmates.

"We suggest that a change in the Civil Service Rules be considered so that subordinate matrons could be appointed without competitive examinations, as many persons of practical experience in housekeeping are afraid to undergo the required examination."

STATE HOSPITAL FOR INCIPIENT PULMONARY TUBERCULOSIS.

The following report has been received from our visitor to this institution:

"Under Dr. A. H. Garvin, who is still Acting Superintendent, the Institution seems to have had a prosperous year. In his last

report he asked for a number of things, all of which, with the exception of a Superintendent's building, were granted by the Legislature. They appropriated \$50,000 for the following purposes: a three story employees' building, to accommodate 40 or more employees; a women's one story shack, to hold 16; two new porches for sitting out; a new filter bed for sewage; a new electric dynamo; painting indoors and outdoors, wherever necessary (in a good many cases it was *very* necessary); grading and sodding and generally beautifying the grounds.

"The more important of these improvements were promptly attended to, and the grounds around the institution are at last beginning to look attractive, but unfortunately it was found that the three main improvements, viz., a new employee's building, a new shack and two new porches would cost \$15,000 more than originally estimated, and consequently nothing can be done on them for some time. It does not seem to be anybody's fault, but the original estimates were undoubtedly too low.

"The hospital is full at present, with 162 patients, about half of them women and half, men. Of this number 55 per cent are incipient cases, 30 per cent moderately advanced, and the remaining 15 per cent advanced. The real capacity is 164 beds in winter, but Dr. Garvin has found it wise to keep four beds vacant.

"There are 90 people on the waiting list, and about half of this number will probably be found to be suitable for admission. Forty per cent of the patients now in the Hospital come from New York City, but the Buffalo and Troy physicians are improving so rapidly in diagnosing the disease that more and more people will be admitted from these cities.

"Dr. Garvin has discovered from his records that 1,000 out of the 10,000 physicians in the State have referred patients to Ray Brook. These have not by any means all been suitable cases, but it argues an increasing knowledge and interest on the part of the profession.

"The State Library has loaned 250 volumes to the hospital, and this, as Dr. Garvin says in his report, almost multiplied by two the number of circulating books there previously. Of course there is still a dearth of weeklies and light literature.

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"Whatever the cause, there can be no doubt that the class of patients has improved during the last year. The new patients are more intelligent looking, better dressed, and much more polite than their predecessors.

"At the last meeting of the Board of Trustees, held a short time ago, it was decided to enlarge the hospital, and Dr. Garvin was accordingly instructed to have plans drawn up for additional wings, to cost in the neighborhood of \$250,000."

APPENDIX A.
TABULAR STATEMENT COMPILED FROM REPORTS OF COUNTY VISITORS.

COUNTY.	Alms-house located at—	NUMBER OF INMATES OCTOBER 1, 1908.			CLASSIFICATION OF INMATES.							CONDITION OF ALMSHOUSE AS TO—				How often are religious services held.	Number of children becoming public charges during the year.
		Males.	Females.	Total.	Feeble-minded and idiotic.	Epileptic.	Cases of tuberculosis.	Children under two years of age.	Born in alms-house during the year.	Between two and sixteen years during year.	Water supply.	Drainage.	Ventilation.				
Allegheny	Anglica	28	36	66	15	3	0	1	2	0	Sufficient.	Good.	Good.	Fortnightly.	12		
Cattaraugus	Machias	63	26	89	19	2	1	0	0	1	Abundant.	Good.	Good.	Fortnightly.	12		
Chautauqua	Dewittville	86	45	131	11	3	1	0	0	10	Good.	Good.	Fair.	Fortnightly.	17		
Chemung	Breesport	70	30	100	3	0	1	0	0	2	Sufficient.	Good.	Good.	Monthly.	21		
Columbia	Ghent	103	31	134	7	0	4	0	1	0	Excellent.	Fair.	Poor.	Monthly.	6		
Delaware	Delhi	37	15	52	7	0	2	0	1	0	Good.	Good.	Good.	Fortnightly.	6		
Erie	Buffalo	199	68	267	0	9	142	21	67	12	Good.	Good.	Poor.	Weekly.	5		
Essex	Whallonsburg	27	28	55	0	5	1	1	0	0	Good.	Good.	Good.	Fortnightly.	5 or 6		
Franklin	Malone	22	8	30	2	0	0	1	0	0	Ample.	Good.	Good.	Fortnightly.	2		
Fulton	Gloversville	31	13	44	1	0	3	1	0	0	Good.	Fair.	Good.	Occasionally.	2		
Genesee	Bethany	49	33	82	0	2	0	4	4	12	Good.	Good.	Good.	Fortnightly.	2		
Greene	Calro	30	33	63	0	1	0	0	0	4	Good.	Fair.	Good.	Fortnightly.	2		
Herkimer	Middleville	69	31	100	12	1	1	0	0	10	Good.	Good.	Improved.	Monthly.	6		
Lewis	Lowville	24	17	41	0	1	0	0	0	3	Good.	Good.	Fair.	Monthly.	6		
Livingston	Geneeo	37	17	54	1	0	0	0	0	0	Good.	Fair.	Good.	Weekly.	6		
Montgomery	Sprakers	41	18	59	9	1	0	0	1	0	Good.	Good.	Good.	No services.	6		
Nassau	Oyster Bay	28	10	38	1	2	1	0	0	0	Poor.	Good.	Poor.	Monthly.	17		
Oneida	Hempstead	27	5	32	6	1	3	0	0	0	Good.	Good.	Good.	Weekly.	4		
Oranoda	Rome	214	83	297	16	15	6	1	7	0	Fair.	Fair.	Fair.	Weekly.	26		
Onondaga	Syracuse	206	114	320	12	4	13	1	6	0	Good.	Good.	Poor.	Weekly.	4		
Orange*	Newburgh	79	50	129	14	5	0	0	0	2	Good.	Good.	Good.	Weekly.	4		
Orleans	Albion	71	27	98	13	4	2	0	0	0	Fair.	Good.	Fair.	Weekly.	4		
Oswego	City alms-house	27	17	44	17	0	0	0	0	0	Good.	Good.	Good.	Monthly.	4		
Rensselaer	County alms-house	35	27	62	11	7	0	1	0	0	Ample.	Good.	Fair.	Fortnightly.	4		
Rockland	Troy	211	80	291	3	0	11	0	7	0	Good.	Good.	Good.	Weekly.	4		
	Monsey																

St. Lawrence.	45	42	87	6	5	0	1	1	0	Good	Good	Poor	Weekly	66
Schenectady	33	8	41	2	0	2	0	8	0	Good	Good	Good	Weekly	
Seneca	60	28	88	20	1	1	0	1	0	Abundant	Good	Fair	No services	
Steuben	80	60	140	40	1	2	0	3	0	Good	Good	Good	Weekly	10
Suffolk	30	16	46		1	2	0	0	0	Good	Good	Good	Monthly	40
Sullivan	35	20	55	15	0	0	0	5	0	Fair	Good	Good	Monthly	
Washington	35	20	55	15	0	0	0	5	0	Good	Good	Good	Fortnightly	16
Wayne	43	31	74	6	3	2	7	16	0	Good	Good	Good	Weekly	274
Westchester	273	89	362	4	2	27	2	12	1	Good	Good	Poor	Weekly	
Wyoming	19	20	39	10	1	0	0	0	0	Good	Good	Good	Fortnightly	1
Yates	19	8	17	7	0	0	0	0	0	Good	Good	Good	Fortnightly	
Canton														
Schenectady														
Waterloo														
Bath														
Yaphank														
Monticello														
Argyle														
Lyons														
East View														
Varysburg														
Penn Yan														

*The figures given are for the Newburgh City and Town almshouse.

APPENDIX B.
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.
RECAPITULATION OF THE CENSUS OF ALL INSTITUTIONS FOR OCTOBER 1, 1908.

INSTITUTIONS.	Bed capacity.	House staff.	Officers' families.	Em- ployees.	Nurses.	Proba- tioners.	Patients or inmates.	Phthisis patients.	State poor.	Conva- lescent help.	Un- paid help.	Work- house help.	Total.
Bradford Street Hospital	8	2		6	2								10
Bureau of Dependent Adults				4									44
Longue's Bureau				22									22
Children's Bureau				30									30
Central Office, Brooklyn				42									42
Central Office, Manhattan				3									31
City Hospital	722	24	2	238			471			28	34		797
Coney Island Hospital	8	3		46	1	1							10
Cumberland Street Hospital	200	5	3	18	27	1	146			15			243
General Drug Department	641	14	4	168	69	10	475	22		70			15
Kings County Hospital	318			18			189			41			832
Lodging House	1,300	23	17	340	65	15	570	720		123			228
Metropolitan Hospital													1,873
New York City Children's Hospitals and Schools	1,580	5		404	5								414
Children's Hospital							540						540
Freeborn School							373						373
Orsodical System Colony	345		10	39			545						545
New York City Farm Colony							283						332
New York City Home for Aged and Infirm, Brooklyn	1,600			72	2		1,713						1,787
New York City Home for Aged and Infirm, Manhattan	2,374	8	12	208	2		2,667		1				2,898
New York City Training School				83	105	21							167
Steamboats				58	1								86
Storehouse			10									35	111
Total for Department of Public Charities	9,096	83	58	1,911	279	48	7,952	742	1	28	203	35	11,430

CENSUS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF BELLEVUE AND ALLIED HOSPITALS, OCTOBER 1, 1908.

Central Office.....	1,034	51	2	17	199	12	963					17
Bellevue Hospital.....	160	11	94	456	32		131					1,683
Gouverneur Hospital.....	150	10	84	84	44		141					268
Harlem Hospital.....	150	8	83	83	41		137					279
Fordham Hospital.....												269
Total for Bellevue and Allied Hospitals.....	1,494	80	2	734	316	12	1,372					2,516
Grand total.....	10,590	163	60	2,645	595	60	9,324	742	1	28	263	85
												13,946

* Includes Metropolitan Hospital Training School.

APPENDIX C.

LIST OF INSTITUTIONS IN THE BOROUGH OF MANHATTAN AND THE BRONX RECEIVING PAYMENT FROM THE CITY OF NEW YORK FOR THE SUPPORT OF DESTITUTE, NEGLECTED OR WAYWARD CHILDREN (NOT INCLUDING HOSPITALS), WITH THE CENSUS OF EACH ON OCTOBER 1, 1899, 1900, 1901, 1902, 1903, 1904, 1905, 1906, 1907 and 1908.

CENSUS OCTOBER 1st.										
1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.	
ROMAN CATHOLIC INSTITUTIONS.										
Asylum of the Sisters of St. Dominic.....	496	406	383	415	483	568	683	728	669	702
Asylum of St. Vincent de Paul.....	232	225	226	232	225	210	207	207	212	201
Association for Befriending Children and Young Girls.....	350	317	328	198	172	169	170	203	182	182
Sisters of the Third Order of St. Dominic.....	560	485	500	480	545	685	795	868	901	921
Sacred Heart Orphan Asylum.....	80	80	87	103	122	143	134	176	202	267
Missionary Sisters, Third Order of St. Francis.....	1,209	1,116	1,101	1,051	1,022	1,089	1,052	1,065	1,114	1,114
Mission of the Immaculate Virgin.....	1,512	1,374	1,362	1,302	1,310	1,514	1,524	1,560	1,665	1,665
New York Catholic Protectory.....	2,664	2,508	2,545	2,368	2,478	2,660	2,623	2,604	2,646	2,481
St. Agatha Home for Children.....	362	398	386	355	466	590	666	710	594	540
St. Benedict's Home for Destitute Children.....	128	144	144	130	129	146	151	140	147	165
St. Joseph's Asylum in the City of New York.....	857	832	833	780	799	793	832	790	803	810
St. James' Home.....	110	110	115	116	121	121	103	Closed		
St. Michael's Home.....	133	159	175	185	183	193	193	196	190	194
St. Ann's Home for Destitute Children.....	583	525	507	477	348	313	298	308	297	384
St. Elizabeth's Industrial School.....	28	35	34	42	62	56	44	40	36	36
Institution of Mercy.....	852	824	754	625	677	744	771	750	813	898
New York Foundling Hospital.....	2,046	1,955	1,939	1,913	1,951	1,892	1,654	1,572	1,726	2,115
Misericordia Hospital.....		48	86	93	97	108	151	145	161	182
Total Roman Catholic Institutions.....	12,122	11,541	11,505	10,805	11,190	11,993	12,051	12,062	12,289	12,821
Average number in each Catholic Institution.....	757	641	639	600	621	666	669	705	722	801
PROTESTANT INSTITUTIONS.										
American Female Guardian Society and Home for the Friendless.....	142	145	143	111	188	187	188	187	194	188
Colored Orphan Asylum.....	295	283	294	312	300	323	330	301	309	311
Five Points House of Industry.....	349	334	351	358	290	257	290	308	298	262
New York Juvenile Asylum.....	924	802	896	865	823	1,045	341	321	346	351

New York Infant Asylum*	403	411	344	110	110	156	239	291	587	818
Nursery and Child's Hospital	400	400	301	231	307	310	161	166	130	11
Children's Fold†	169	154	166	34						
German Odd Fellow's Home and Orphan Asylum		65	69	85	92	97	97	101	87	138
Total in Protestant Institutions	2,882	2,804	2,563	2,106	2,110	2,375	1,846	1,675	1,951	2,200
Average number in each Protestant Institution	383	325	320	263	301	339	235	230	278	314
HEBREW INSTITUTIONS.										
Hebrew Benevolent and Orphan Asylum Society†	738	751	834	916	977	1,029	1,036	1,076	1,232	1,319
Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society†	876	908	922	758	649	758	754	787	806	1,054
Hebrew Infant Asylum	112	160	151	151	148	153	152	147	149	147
Total in Hebrew Institutions	1,726	1,819	1,907	1,825	1,774	1,940	1,942	2,010	2,187	2,520
Average number in each Hebrew Institution	575	606	635	608	591	647	647	670	729	840
Total, all Institutions	16,530	15,964	15,975	14,786	15,074	16,308	15,639	15,747	16,427	17,541
Average number in each Institution	636	543	542	498	527	582	558	580	608	647

* County Branch closed July 1, 1902, and Boarding-out System adopted later. † Closed November, 1902. ‡ Some children are boarded in families.

FINAL REPORT
OF THE
COMMISSION TO SELECT A SITE FOR THE EASTERN
NEW YORK STATE CUSTODIAL ASYLUM,
HEREAFTER TO BE KNOWN AS
LETCHWORTH VILLAGE.

STATE OF NEW YORK.

No. 21.

IN SENATE,

MARCH 8, 1909.

Second Report of the Commission to Select a Site for the Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum.

STATE OF NEW YORK:

THE CAPITOL, ALBANY, MARCH 8, 1909.

*To the HON. HORACE WHITE, Lieutenant-Governor and President
of the Senate:*

SIR.— We have the honor herewith to transmit to the Legislature the second report of the Commission to select a site for the Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum.

Yours very respectfully,

WILLIAM R. STEWART,
FRANKLIN B. KIRKBRIDE,
ALEXANDER C. PROUDFIT,
Commissioners.

COMMISSIONERS

WILLIAM R. STEWART, New York.

FRANKLIN B. KIRKBRIDE, New York.

ALEXANDER C. PROUDFIT, New York.

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REPORT OF THE COMMISSION

To the Honorable the Legislature of the State of New York:

The Commission appointed by his Excellency, Governor Hughes, in accordance with the provisions of chapter 331, Laws of 1907, being "An act authorizing the selection of lands as a Site for the Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum, and establishing the said asylum," begs to submit herewith its second report.

As provided in the above act, a report was made to the Legislature of 1908, in which it was recommended that a site at Thiells, Rockland county, be selected.

By the enactment of chapter 292, Laws of 1908, entitled "An act making an appropriation for the purchase of a site for the Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum," the selection of the Thiells site was approved. This act is as follows:

Section 1. The sum of one hundred eighty-eight thousand five hundred and seventy-five dollars, or so much thereof as may be necessary, is hereby appropriated out of any moneys in the treasury not otherwise appropriated, for the purchase of a site for the Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum, selected by the commission appointed by the governor pursuant to the provisions of chapter three hundred and thirty-one of the laws of nineteen hundred and seven, to be paid by the treasurer of the state on the warrant of the comptroller, upon the order of the said commission, and the delivery to the comptroller of deeds approved by the attorney-general conveying to the state a good, clear and unincumbered title to the lands comprising the site selected by the said commission.

§ 2. The Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum shall be for the custodial care of epileptics of unsound mind, exclusive of insane epileptics, and for the custodial care of other feeble-minded persons, including such as are in state charitable institutions or are supported at public expense and require custodial care.

§ 3. This act shall take effect immediately.

As soon as this act became a law, steps were taken toward the prompt acquisition of the property by the State.

The State Engineer was requested to make a survey of the lands selected, in order to determine with accuracy the boundaries of

the site and of the various holdings included therein, and to prepare a map showing these lines. Arrangements were also entered into with the State Engineer for making, at the same time, a topographic survey and map, and a study of water supply and sewage disposal; these were the first steps in the preparation of a general plan for the development of the property which the Commission was authorized to make by the act under which it was appointed.

The State Engineer having stated that he was without funds to make the surveys and maps, the Commission, in order that the work might not be delayed, agreed to reimburse his outlay; the total cost of surveys, maps and reports, not to exceed \$4,500. These facts were laid before the Governor, and the authority of the State Civil Service Commission was procured for the temporary appointment by the State Engineer of an engineer to make these surveys. This work has been completed at a cost of \$4,210.25, to the entire satisfaction of the Commission, which is under obligations to the State Engineer's Department and more particularly to Hon. Louis B. Harrison, Division Engineer, under whose supervision the work was done.

Arrangements were also made with the Buffalo Abstract and Title Company to make searches and abstracts and to guarantee the titles to the various properties included in the site. This action was taken upon the advice of the Attorney-General, who through press of work in his office and lack of funds, was unable to examine these titles before the options expired. The Commission, being itself without funds for this purpose, informed the various property owners of the circumstances, with the result that a number of them, in order to expedite the transfer of their properties to the State, offered themselves to bear the cost of searches and title guarantee.

The work of taking title has proved difficult, as many defects were discovered which had to be cleared up before settlements could be made. On March 1, 1909, the title to twenty-one properties, comprising 1,234.08 acres, had passed to the State at a cost of \$146,735.65. Of the remaining twelve titles, eleven, representing 746.77 acres and costing \$49,686.60, are in process of settlement and will be closed in the near future. One parcel, comprising 13.66 acres and of an estimated value of \$270, will have to be condemned, as the owners still refuse to sell.

The Commission has been without the necessary funds to care properly for the property. It has, however, used every means in its power to protect the interests of the State. Trespass notices have been posted on the various farms which have already been acquired, and the members of the Commission and Mr. Alfred Hall, its agent, have frequently visited the site. The State engineers engaged in making the surveys were on the property for more than two months during the past summer, and after their departure a temporary arrangement was made with Josiah B. Secor, Jr., one of the property owners, to make daily inspections and regular reports to the Commission, until there is more adequate provision for the protection and care of the property. A number of the former owners have been allowed temporarily to occupy their homes. In most cases a small rent has been charged. A few families have been permitted to remain rent free, in return for services rendered.

Additional Land

As emphasized by the data included in the reports secured by the Commission from the State Engineer's Department, it is advisable to secure, at some future time, a strip of land containing about eighteen acres and lying west of Willow Grove schoolhouse, in order to control Minisceongo creek at this point where, for a short distance, it does not flow within the property of the State.

The Peterson farm, containing thirty-six acres and lying between the Secor and Pinaud properties, should also be secured, in order to complete the northern boundary of the site, and because it affords excellent locations for buildings with a fine southerly exposure overlooking the main site.

The present estimated value of the former property is \$13,000, and of the latter \$6,500.

Estimates for Improvements

The act under which this Commission was appointed provides, *inter alia*:

Section 3. Estimates for improvements.—They may also cause to be prepared a general plan of the buildings and improvements necessary to be constructed and made upon such land in order to effect the location of the said Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum thereon, and may cause to be prepared by the State Architect preliminary plans and specifications of such buildings and improvements, and the estimated cost thereof.

In the consideration of these important problems the Commission has been fortunate in having the co-operation and able assistance both of Hon. Franklin B. Ware, State Architect, and of the following gentlemen who, at the invitation of the Commission, agreed to act without compensation as an advisory committee:

Dr. William P. Spratling, of Baltimore, formerly Superintendent of Craig Colony.

Dr. Walter E. Fernald, Superintendent of the Massachusetts School for the Feeble-Minded at Waverley.

Hon. Robert W. Hebbard, Commissioner of Public Charities, New York City.

Hon. Homer Folks, Secretary of the State Charities Aid Association.

Dr. L. Pierce Clark, Neurologist to the Schools for the Feeble-Minded, Randall's Island, New York City.

The recommendations hereinafter made have the unanimous approval of these gentlemen.

General Recommendations

The present State charitable institutions for the feeble-minded are overcrowded, and there are in addition long waiting lists of patients suitable for admission, to say nothing of those in almshouses and at large who ought to be placed in institutions affording proper care for them and protection to the community. Immediate provision should be made for patients by opening the Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum.

In order that this may be accomplished as speedily as possible, it is recommended that an act be passed providing for the appointment of a board of managers and the organization of the colony; that an appropriation be made, sufficient to cover the first year's work of improvement and construction, in accordance with the plans submitted herewith, and that, on the organization of the board of managers, this Commission be discharged.

More specific and detailed recommendations for accomplishing the above purpose follow:

Name

The following statement made by this Commission in its first report still applies:

"The name of the new institution should be short and distinctive. It should not define the types of cases to be cared for, nor in any way suggest incarceration or incurable conditions, but, rather, ideas of freedom and country life.

"The title, 'Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum,' while appropriate and useful as a definition, should not be adopted as a permanent title, on account of its length and unwieldiness, its depressing effect on the inmates, and its tendency to deter friends and relatives from sending patients."

It has been suggested that the policy followed in the cases of Willard Asylum and Craig Colony, which were named in honor of men who had rendered distinguished service to the State, be adopted in the designation of the new colony. But one name has been suggested, and as it is appropriate and appears to meet with general approval, the Commission is glad to withdraw its suggestion of a year ago, that the new institution be called "Haverstraw State Colony," and instead recommends that the name "Letchworth Village" be given it, in recognition of the many and distinguished services of Hon. William Pryor Letchworth, of Portage, to the State and of his efforts in behalf of its defective wards.

Access to the Site

The New Jersey and New York Railroad, a branch of the Erie Railroad, passes through one corner of the property. It connects with the West Shore Railroad at West Haverstraw.

A spur track or siding about one and one-quarter miles in length should be constructed in order to deliver material near the center of the site. This will effect considerable saving in the cost of construction by reducing the amount of hauling to be done, and will also permit the delivery of coal and supplies in carload lots to the power plant and storehouse.

Alterations to Existing Buildings

A considerable number of the buildings now on the site can be utilized; some temporarily and others permanently.

As it is important to make provision for patients as soon as possible, alterations to these buildings should be undertaken in order to provide accommodations for a suitable number of able-bodied feeble-minded men who can be employed in caring for the property, working on the farm, or even on new construction. An appropriation of \$25,000 should be made for this purpose.

Water Supply and Sewage System

Provision should now be made for the construction of a dam and the main line of water pipe, and also for the construction of a main sewer and a sewage disposal plant, in accordance with the recommendations of Hon. Louis B. Harrison, Division Engineer, transmitted herewith. The cost of connecting the various buildings with the main water supply pipe and sewer should be included in the cost of construction of the buildings.

New Buildings

To provide for an ultimate population of 3,000 persons including inmates and employees, the following buildings will be needed:

1. Administration Group:

- Small office building.
- Assembly hall.
- Chapels.
- General hospital.
- Isolation pavilions.
- Laboratory and mortuary.
- Schoolhouses.
- Industrial buildings.
- Storehouse.
- Kitchen and dining-room.
- Bakery.
- Heating, lighting and power plant.
- Icehouses.
- Laundry.
- Fire stations.
- Shops.

2. Farm and Dairy Buildings.
3. Buildings for Officers and Employees:
Superintendent's house.
Residences for officers and employees.
4. Twenty buildings for male patients.
5. Sixteen buildings for female patients.

The State Architect has prepared a preliminary plan of these necessary buildings and improvements, with their estimated cost, which is transmitted herewith.

After this plan has been perfected in all its details, it should be followed in the development of the property, except where experience may demonstrate that it can be improved.

Development of the Property

The order in which the development of the property should be undertaken is as follows:

I. Preliminary Improvements:

1. Alterations and improvements to existing buildings.
2. Construction of spur track.
3. Construction of dam and main water supply pipe.
4. Construction of main sewers and sewage disposal plant.
5. Construction of roads.
6. Construction of brickmaking plant.

II. Construction of New Buildings:

1. Administration buildings.
2. Farm and dairy buildings.
3. Buildings for officers and employees.
4. Buildings for patients.

The most essential buildings of each class should be erected first.

Appropriation

Funds should be provided at this time to cover the preliminary improvements itemized in the above list, and in addition it is recommended that the Legislature appropriate as large a sum as the condition of the State Treasury will warrant for the immediate construction of new buildings.

Organization

The draft of an act to provide for the management of the Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum and for the admission and control of inmates therein, is transmitted herewith.

All of which is respectfully submitted,

WILLIAM R. STEWART,
FRANKLIN B. KIRKBRIDE,
ALEXANDER C. PROUDFIT,

Commissioners.

**APPENDIX I.—SCHEDULE OF PROPERTIES COMPOSING THE SITE OF THE EASTERN NEW YORK
STATE CUSTODIAL ASYLUM**

N	NAME.	Date of settlement.	Acres.	Price.
1	Springstead.....	Feb. 1, 1909	20.83	\$9,250 00
2	Knapp.....	Aug. 28, 1908	129.60	20,000 00
3	Burger.....		64.00	12,000 00
4	Coe.....	Oct. 10, 1908	62.50	9,500 00
5	Fowler.....	Oct. 23, 1908	61.40	7,500 00
6	Beach.....	Aug. 21, 1908	161.02	20,000 00
7	Requa.....		1.00	750 00
8	Pinaud.....	Oct. 10, 1908	50.50	6,500 00
9	S. L. Secor.....	Jan. 8, 1909	88.50	12,000 00
9	S. L. Secor.....	Jan. 8, 1909	97.55	3,414 25
10	Nicholas Rose.....		18.70	9,750 00
11	Goodwin.....	Oct. 10, 1908	54.30	6,500 00
12	Jones.....	Jan. 16, 1909	2.90	2,900 00
13	Elliott.....	Aug. 28, 1908	41.70	10,000 00
14	Rosenberg.....	Aug. 28, 1908	47.70	15,000 00
15	Edith A. Rose.....	Feb. 20, 1909	1.08	1,100 00
16	King.....	Oct. 10, 1908	7.50	3,150 00
17	S. L. Secor.....	Jan. 8, 1909	19.67	7,000 00
18	J. B. Secor, Jr.....		212.70	7,444 50
18	J. B. Secor, Jr.....		2.90	1,200 00
19	Miller.....	Oct. 10, 1908	4.95	1,400 00
20	Augustus Rose.....	Oct. 12, 1908	25.00	875 00

APPENDIX I — (Continued) — SCHEDULE OF PROPERTIES COMPOSING THE SITE OF THE EASTERN
NEW YORK STATE CUSTODIAL ASYLUM

No.	NAME.	Date of settlement.	Acres.	Price.
21	Cornelia A. Christie.....		38.11	\$8,000 00
22	Disbrow.....		27.50	3,000 00
23	Christie Heirs.....		10.00	1,000 00
24	Smith.....	Oct. 10, 1908	115.29	7,000 00
25	Ambrey.....	Jan. 8, 1909	116.47	1,638 00
26	Call.....	Jan. 8, 1909	4.54	90 00
27	Gillies.....	Oct. 10, 1908	86.31	1,500 00
28	Bedford's Sons.....		60.37	1,052 50
29	Christie Heirs.....		194.87	3,898 00
30	Rockland Print Works.....		13.66	*270 00
31	Isaac Bedford.....		85.50	969 60
32	Baisley.....	Jan. 8, 1909	34.77	417 60
33	Christie Heirs.....		31.12	622 00
	Total.....		1,994.51	\$196,692 25

* Estimated value.

APPENDIX II.

STATE OF NEW YORK:

DEPARTMENT OF STATE ENGINEER AND SURVEYOR,
EASTERN DIVISION.

ALBANY, *December 30, 1908.*

*To the Commission to Select a Site for the Eastern New York
State Custodial Asylum:*

GENTLEMEN.—I have the honor to transmit herewith the following reports in connection with the work done by this Department at the Thiells Site:

Report of Chapman L. Johnson, Engineer in Charge.

Report of Harry Bowen, Assistant Engineer.

Report on Water Supply and Sewage Disposal.

Respectfully yours,

LOUIS B. HARRISON,
Division Engineer.

ALBANY, *December 5, 1908.*

HON. L. B. HARRISON, *Division Engineer:*

DEAR SIR.—I beg to report to you final completion of the work on which I have been engaged for the past five months, making survey of property lately acquired by the commission to select a site for the Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum, and making topographic survey and map of same.

The work has been one of some magnitude, and has required the expenditure of considerable time, money and effort, but I hope and believe that the value of the results obtained will prove fully commensurate with the cost. I desire to express my appreciation of the value of the co-operation met with on the part of yourself and the commission, mainly represented by the Hon. F. B. Kirkbride, and also of the high efficiency of the engineering corps with which you furnished me.

I herewith submit maps as follows:

1.—A paper map drawn to a scale of 200 feet per inch, showing the topographic features of the site.

2.—A tracing of above.

3.—A map on vellum drawn to same scale and showing all exterior and interior boundaries, giving names of the former owners and acreage of the different parcels. Upon this latter map is also shown, by a dotted line, the territory lying westerly of Pinaud's which it is proposed eventually to acquire. The commission, I think, fully understands the importance of this acquisition. I have during the progress of the work kept myself in constant touch, not only with you and the commission, but with the officers charged with the duty of perfecting title, and congratulate myself upon the fact that the survey of this 2,000-acre plat has been completed and settlement reached, or about to be reached, without litigation, with all of the thirty-three different landowners with the exception of two, who have from the start refused to give us any options or enter into negotiations with us.

The land line map calls for no further comment from me except to say that all exterior boundary corners, except those defined by stone fences, have been permanently marked with iron pins, and the position of these pins is shown on said map.

The topographic map shows five-foot contour lines, based upon actual observations made by me, covering the entire lowlands, one point on the uplands, and the proposed dam sites, all of which will be found to be substantially correct, and covering from 700 to 800 acres of the site. For the remaining 1,200 or 1,300 acres of mountain land I have shown contour lines with twenty-foot spaces reproduced from the United States Geological Survey map, modified by such observations as I have taken, and in doing this I have made very successful use of an enlarged photograph of the site, furnished me by the Albany Art Union, enlargement being from $\frac{1}{62,500}$ to $\frac{1}{2,400}$ or 26.04 times.

For the part of the territory lying southerly of Pinaud's and easterly of Cheescock mountain, also for the mountain land on the Pinaud and Smith properties, the United States map matches up fairly well; but for the valley of the Minisceongo creek lying westerly of Smith's, it is most hopelessly in error. From Smith's

to the Rockland Print Works property, a distance of about 8,000 feet, my elevations failed to check those on the United States map by 250 feet. The discovery of this error was a great surprise to me, and entailed considerable additional work. Never before in my use of these maps have I discovered an error of such magnitude. It may be accounted for, however, upon the theory that this was one of the first sheets made in the State of New York when the government's organization was not in the state of efficiency it has been for the past ten or fifteen years.

From Smith's to the westerly confines of our property, and northerly of the peaks on the Cheescock range, guided by my own level observations up to the Rockland Print Works property, of streams above same, and general observation of the territory in question I have drawn 20-foot contour lines which I believe are sufficiently accurate to guide the Commission in any study of this section of the site which it is liable to undertake.

During the prosecution of the work, additional study and surveys were made with the idea of obtaining data from which to prepare an estimate and report upon the matter of water supply, sewage and sewage disposal.

Respectfully submitted,

CHAPMAN L. JOHNSON,

Engineer in Charge.

ALBANY, December 10, 1908.

MR. LOUIS B. HARRISON, *Division Engineer, Albany, N. Y.:*

DEAR SIR.— I beg to hand you the following report in regard to monumenting the lands of the Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum at Thiells, N. Y.

The monuments are 1¼-inch black iron pipe, 3 feet long, except Nos. 18 and 19, which are iron pins, and Nos. 74 and 75, which are 1¼-inch galvanized iron pipe.

The monuments are indicated on the land map by circles and numbers. Descriptions as follows:

No.

1. Pipe and stones on road line.
2. Pipe and stones.

No.

3. Pipe and stones.
4. Pipe and stones.
5. Pipe and stones.
6. Pipe and stones.
7. Pipe and stones.
8. Pipe and stones on road line in wall.
9. Pipe and stones on road line in wall.
10. Pipe and stones.
11. Pipe and stones on road line.
12. Pipe and stones on road line.
13. Pipe and stones on road line in wall.
14. Pipe and stones on road line.
15. Pipe and stones.
16. Pipe and stones on road line.
17. Pipe and stones.
18. Iron pin.
19. Iron pin.
20. Pipe and stones.
21. Pipe and stones.
22. Pipe and stones.
23. Pipe and stones.
24. Pipe and stones.
25. Pipe and stones on road line.
26. Pipe and stones.
27. Pipe and stones on road line.
28. Pipe and stones on road line.
29. Pipe and stones on road line.
30. Pipe and stones.
31. Pipe and stones in brook.
32. Pipe and stones, edge of brook.
33. Pipe and stones.
34. Pipe and stones.
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65. Pipe and stones.
66. Pipe and stones on road line.
67. Pipe and stones on road line.
68. Pipe and stones.
69. Pipe and stones.
70. Pipe and stones.
71. Pipe and stones.
72. Pipe and stones.
73. Pipe and stones.
74. Pipe and stones.
75. Pipe and stones on road line.

Respectfully yours,

HARRY BOWEN.

ALBANY, December 30, 1908.

To the Commission to Select a Site for the Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum:

GENTLEMEN.—During the progress of the work of making the topographic survey of the proposed site for the Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum located near Thiells, Rockland county, N. Y., we have made close observation of the locality with reference to the problems presenting themselves as to water supply, water distribution, sewage and sewage disposal. This survey and study was made without detailed soundings or test excavations to determine the character of material through which the work is to pass. To make more accurate observations to determine areas and cubical contents of proposed reservoir would require considerable additional time and study, though upon the subject of water supply we are to quite an extent in accord with the opinions expressed by Mr. Emil Kuichling, C.E., submitted in his reports to the Commission under date of November 4, 1907, and February 15, 1908. The figures given in our estimates are in themselves sufficiently complete to enable the Commission to submit to the Legislature a fairly accurate estimate of cost.

WATER SUPPLY.

Three propositions confront us in the decision of the question of proper location of dam.

First. One on the Rockland Print Works property.

Second. One on site which we have the honor to recommend and hereafter refer to as site "A."

Third. One on site recommended by Mr. Kuichling in his report to the Commission and hereafter referred to as site "B."

The first proposition we reject on four grounds:

1. It creates an unnecessarily large head to reach highest point of flat lands, namely, $940 - 450 = 490$ feet.
 2. That the watershed available is only 1.45 square miles and probably insufficient for our purposes.
 3. That this site covers an area of some ten acres and has as a bottom a deposit of silt which would have to be removed to a depth of a foot or more in order to secure potable water.
-

4. The long line of iron pipe required here would bring cost of establishing this reservoir largely in excess of cost of location hereinafter recommended.

Site "A."

Here we can secure a head from crest of dam to highest point of low lands of $670 - 450 = 220$ feet, one sufficient, if proper-sized distribution system is designed from water main, to throw three streams through a one-inch nozzle to a height of at least sixty-five feet, thus securing ample fire protection. Here we get a drainage area of three square miles and secure the usufruct of the middle branch of the creek, the character of which water is so highly commended in the report of Mr. Whipple. It is upon this location that the figures in our estimates are based. Here, as at location "B," nothing will be required for preparation of bottom of reservoir, except the cutting off of the timber and possibly a little grubbing of stumps. Here also, as at location "B," the dam we propose will to some extent flood existing roads, but the cost of their restoration is insignificant in comparison with the whole range of the scheme. We advise the erection here of a hollow steel concrete dam, section and profile of which is herewith submitted.

Site "B."

This is the point recommended by Mr. Emil Kuichling in his very able reports to the Commission of November 4, 1907, and February 15, 1908, but in which he distinctly states that his recommendations are based upon insufficient data, which will have to be corroborated by future more accurate observations. This location is, in our opinion, inferior to the one herein recommended in the following respects:

1. It commands a drainage area one mile less in extent and loses the valuable watershed of the middle branch.
2. It creates an unnecessarily large head, namely 307 feet, as against a head of 220 feet heretofore recommended.
3. It entails the building of 1,500 feet more of main line of pipe and installation here would probably cost \$5,000 more than on site "A."

The dam we propose is designated to create a reservoir with the following capacity:

Three thousand five hundred population of 100 gallons per day per capita equals 350,000 gallons per day.

	Gallons.
Expected flow through dry season 30,000 gallons per day per mile, 3 square miles.....	90,000
Daily depletion.	260,000
Depletion in 100 days, 260,000 x 100 equals.....	26,000,000
Reserve for fire protection	1,000,000
Total.	27,000,000

WATER DISTRIBUTION.

This should be made by a twelve-inch main extending from dam site down the road to Willow Grove schoolhouse and thence following generally the lower portion of the valley to the road bounding the Disbrow property on the north, and from this main should be carried distribution pipes varying in size from six-inch to four-inch diameter, possibly in some cases three-inch, to various buildings or colonies.

The uncertainty of the location of future population renders an estimate on the subject of this subdistribution somewhat doubtful. You will note that the plan proposed follows the road from the dam to Willow Grove, some of which takes us off of our holdings. It would be possible, at approximately the same figures, to confine our occupancy to our land, but we believe the Commission will eventually see the necessity of the acquisition of the additional lands heretofore referred to which will obviate this trouble.

The twelve-inch main above mentioned is shown on the topographic map herewith transmitted as a solid blue line. This only is included in the estimate herewith attached. The remaining work to complete the water-distribution system is shown as a broken line.

SEWAGE.

It will of course be confessed that it will not be agreeable to public sentiment in the locality, to the judgment of the Legisla-

ture, nor in accord with sound sanitary principles to consider for a moment the discharge of sewage untreated from this proposed population, which, for the purpose of this report, we estimate at 3,500, into Minisceongo creek. We have, therefore, had in mind in the deciding on sewage problems, necessary questions as to sewage disposal. We had hoped to devise a scheme by which a main trunk sewer could be carried from Smith's down the valley of the creek to Disbrow's. This, however, we find to be impossible, owing to light grades existing from Knapp's to Disbrow's and the necessity of obtaining at disposal works a head of at least five feet to avoid the fixed charge of pumping. We are, therefore, forced to recommend the building, eventually, of two sewage systems, one on the slopes of the foothills on the westerly, and one on the easterly side of the creek, both discharging into one disposal plant located on the Disbrow property, and a third to care for the easterly slope discharging into smaller disposal works located on the Goodwin-Elliott properties. You will note that for sewer system from Smith's to Willow Grove we occupy territory yet to be acquired. This occupancy is necessary if any colonies situated near the Smith house are designed. If this property is not acquired, either these colonies must remain undrained or another disposal plant be created, or very deep excavation made along the Secor-Rose properties back of Roecrofts. You will further note that our plans do not connect the Springstead property and territory immediately adjacent thereto with either of these systems. They cannot be brought there, the contour of the ground making it impossible to do so, or at least unreasonably expensive. Some inexpensive method of purification should be adopted here. As remarked in our discussion of water supply, the uncertainty of future distribution of population renders definite estimates as to sewer construction impossible.

The various sewer systems mentioned above are shown on the map herewith submitted. The line extending from the Pinaud property along the western side of Minisceongo creek to the disposal plant at Disbrow's is shown as a dot and dash red line. This only is included in the abridged estimate herewith attached. The other sewer lines eventually planned are shown as broken red lines.

SEWAGE DISPOSAL.

The situation lends itself to only one solution of the question, viz., the establishment of two disposal works — one located on the Disbrow property to care for, say, 3,000 population, and one located on the Goodwin-Elliott property to care for, say, 500 population. This without considering the difficulties on the Smith and Springstead properties heretofore referred to.

On neither of these two locations for disposal plants does the soil present facilities for purification through contact beds in natural formation. Recourse must be had to contact beds artificially created.

In the abridged estimate allowance is made for the cheap labor available in performing this work.

In addition to the maps previously submitted, we herewith submit a topographic map drawn to a scale of 1,000 feet per inch of the site. On this map is shown the sewerage systems and water-supply systems, designated as just noted.

We herewith hand you various plans, sketches and estimates connected with the matter.

Very truly yours,

LOUIS B. HARRISON,

Division Engineer.

CHAPMAN L. JOHNSON,

Engineer in Charge.

ALBANY, N. Y., *December 30, 1908.*

Estimate of cost of establishing an abridged water supply, water distribution, sewage system, and sewage disposal plant on the site of the property of the Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum near Thiells, Rockland county, N. Y.

WATER SUPPLY.

Estimates Based on Dam "A" Location.

Clearing site and grubbing where necessary.....	\$1,000 00
500 cubic yards excavation of rock, at \$1.50.....	750 00
Change of road (about 1,500 ft.) and a small bridge.	3,000 00

Dam, including earth excavation, (see inclosed sketch)	\$50,000 00
	\$54,750 00
Add 10 per cent. for engineering, inspection and contingencies	5,475 00
Total	\$60,225 00

WATER DISTRIBUTION.

Rock excavation in trench, 300 cubic yards, at \$2.	\$600 00
12-inch cast iron pipe laid, 13,500 lin. ft., at \$1.21.	16,335 00
	\$16,935 00
Add 10 per cent. for engineering, inspection and contingencies	1,693 50
Total	\$18,628 50

SEWAGE SYSTEM.

12-in vit. pipe (furnished and laid, inc. trenching) 3,380 ft., at 60c.	\$2,028 00
10-inch vit pipe (furnished and laid inc. trenching) 3,010 ft., at 50c.	1,505 00
8-inch vit. pipe (furnished and laid, inc. trenching) 1,900 ft., at 40c.	760 00
6-inch vit. pipe (furnished and laid, inc. trenching) 2,810 ft., at 25c.	702 50
Manholes, 40, at \$30.	1,200 00
Flush tanks, 10, at \$50.	500 00
500 cubic yards rock excavation, at \$1.	500 00
	\$7,195 50
Add 10 per cent. for engineering, inspection and contingencies	719 55
Total	\$7,915 05

SEWAGE DISPOSAL PLANT.

Main plant	\$10,000 00
Cesspool Isolation ward	1,000 00
Cesspool Springstead property	600 00
	\$11,600 00
Add 10 per cent, for engineering, inspection and contingencies	1,160 00
Total	\$12,760 00

GENERAL SUMMARY.

Water supply	\$60,225 00	
Water distribution	18,628 50	
		\$78,853 50
Sewage system	\$7,915 05	
Sewage disposal plant	12,760 00	
		20,675 05
Total	\$99,528 55	

Recommend for legislative appropriation :

Water supply and distribution	\$79,000 00
Sewage system and sewage disposal plant	21,000 00
Total	\$100,000 00

APPENDIX III.

STATE OF NEW YORK.

OFFICE OF STATE ARCHITECT,

ALBANY, *March 4, 1909.*

To the Commission to Select a Site for the Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum:

GENTLEMEN.—In accordance with the provisions of chapter 331, Laws of 1907, which require that the State Architect shall prepare preliminary plans and specifications and estimated cost of buildings to be erected on site to be selected by the Commission, I have prepared a preliminary scheme which is submitted herewith, for an institution with a capacity of three thousand inmates. The estimate submitted herewith is based upon a total capacity of two thousand seven hundred fifty inmates. Two of the buildings for inmates shown on the plans are not included in the estimate, nor is the cost of the two chapels.

A close approximate estimated cost of the proposed buildings, power plant, equipment, etc., is as follows:

Dormitory buildings (capacity 2,250); Infirmary groups (capacity 400)	\$1,550,000
Administration building	25,000
Staff residence	20,000
Assembly hall	20,000
School and industrial buildings.....	150,000
Laundry, bakery and shops	80,000
Power house and equipment.....	103,000
Storehouse and cold storage building.....	30,000
Dining-room and kitchen building.....	25,000

Laboratory and mortuary.....	\$10,000
Steward's residence	7,500
Superintendent's residence	12,000
Physician's residence	9,000
Teachers', nurses' and employees' buildings.....	236,000
Hospital for tuberculosis (capacity 100).....	15,000
Hospital for contagious diseases.....	6,000
Three fire stations	6,000
Two ice houses	8,000
Brick plant	6,000
Steam conduits and piping	95,000
Pole line, electric cables and transformers.....	20,000
Barns, stables, etc.	20,000
Roads, walks and grading (3½ miles of new road)...	20,000
Concrete bridge and dam.....	10,000

Yours very truly,

F. B. WARE,

State Architect.

APPENDIX IV.

PROPOSED ACT

To provide for the management of the Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum, to be known hereafter as the "Letchworth Village," and for the admission and control of inmates therein.

The People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

Section 1. The Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum, established by chapter three hundred and thirty-one of the laws of nineteen hundred and seven, as amended by chapter two hundred and ninety-two of the laws of nineteen hundred and eight is hereby continued by the name and title of "Letchworth Village."

§ 2. Appointment and terms of managers.—The Letchworth Village shall be under the control of a board of seven managers, to be appointed by the governor by and with the advice and consent of the senate. All such members shall be residents of this state. The terms of the managers appointed after the first seven shall be seven years, except that managers appointed to fill vacancies shall hold office for the unexpired terms of the managers whom they succeed. The term of office of one such manager shall expire on the first Tuesday in February in each year, and in the appointment of the first members of the board the governor shall designate one to serve one year, one to serve two years, one to serve three years, one to serve four years, one to serve five years, one to serve six years, and one to serve seven years. The governor may remove any manager at any time for cause, on giving to such manager an opportunity to be heard. Such managers shall receive no compensation for their time or services, but the actual expenses necessarily incurred by them in the performance of their duties shall be paid in the same manner as the other expenses of the village.

§ 3. General powers and duties of the managers.—The board of managers shall:

1. Have the general superintendence, management and control of the institution over which it is appointed, of the grounds and buildings, officers and employees thereof, of the inmates therein, and of all matters relating to the government, discipline, contracts and fiscal concerns thereof, and shall make such rules and regulations as may seem to it necessary for carrying out the purposes of such institution.

2. Maintain an effective inspection of the affairs and management of the village, for which purpose the board shall meet once in every month at the institution, and at such other times as may be prescribed in the by-laws, but the annual meeting of the board shall be held on the second Wednesday of October.

3. Keep in a book provided for that purpose a full and fair record of its doings which shall be open at all times for the inspection of the members and officers of the state board of charities, the fiscal supervisor of state charities or any person or persons appointed by the governor or either branch of the legislature to examine the same, and shall forward monthly minutes of the meetings of the board and reports of its inspections, to the governor, the state board of charities and the fiscal supervisor, such reports to be signed by the managers present at the meetings.

4. Appoint from among its members a president, secretary and treasurer. The board shall also appoint a superintendent and chaplains, who shall hold office during the pleasure of the board, residing at the institution, and shall, subject to the provisions of the state finance law fix the compensation of the officers and employees of the institution.

§ 4. Annual report.— The board of managers shall make to the legislature in January of each year a detailed report with suitable suggestions and such other matter as may be required of them for the year ending on the thirtieth day of September preceding the date of such report, and shall also on or before the first day of November report to the state board of charities and the fiscal supervisor the affairs and conditions of the village for the preceding year with full and detailed estimates of the next appropriation required for maintenance, dividing said estimate into separate amounts for food and clothing, and for other ordinary uses and repairs; it shall also make detailed estimates of special

appropriations, if any are needed, for extraordinary repairs, renewals, extensions, improvements, betterments or other necessary objects, and for the erection of additional buildings; and the state board of charities shall in its annual report to the legislature, certify what appropriations are in its opinion necessary and proper for the village, which shall be subject to the visitation and to the other general powers of the state board of charities.

§ 5. Temporary care of grounds and buildings.— Until the appointment of the managers in accordance with the provisions of this act, the commission appointed by the governor to select a site for the Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum under the provisions of chapter three hundred and thirty-one of the laws of nineteen hundred and seven, as amended by chapter two hundred and ninety-two of the laws of nineteen hundred and eight, shall be continued as a commission to care for and improve the lands, buildings and other properties of the Letchworth Village, and shall exercise to this extent all the powers of the board of managers for the purpose of preserving, protecting and developing the property and making the necessary arrangements for the opening of the institution at the earliest possible date.

§ 6. Transfer of functions.— Upon the appointment and organization of the board of managers provided for by section two of this act, the powers vested in the commission appointed to select the site in accordance with the provisions of said chapter three hundred and thirty-one of the laws of nineteen hundred and seven, as amended by chapter two hundred and ninety-two of the laws of nineteen hundred and eight, shall cease and determine, and the further work contemplated in such chapters three hundred and thirty-one of the laws of nineteen hundred and seven and two hundred and ninety-two of the laws of nineteen hundred and eight, shall be performed by the board of managers provided for herein, and the said board of managers shall exercise all the powers conferred upon such commission in accordance with the terms of said acts.

§ 7. Buildings and improvements.— The board of managers of the Letchworth Village are authorized, empowered and required to proceed with the construction and equipment of all

necessary and suitable buildings, including the heating, lighting, plumbing, laundry fixtures, and water supply, and of the sewage disposal plant therefor, as soon as appropriations are made for such purposes by the legislature, but the plans for all such buildings and improvements shall be made by the state architect and the contracts for the erection of the said buildings and improvements shall be subject to the provisions of section forty-nine of the state charities law, constituting chapter fifty-seven of the laws of nineteen hundred and nine. The board of managers shall put the buildings and grounds of the village into proper condition for the reception of patients as rapidly as possible and shall utilize such of the existing buildings as it may deem suitable for the reception of inmates, and employ such inmates in work suited to their physical and mental condition so far as in the judgment of said board the same shall be feasible.

§ 8. General powers of the superintendent.—The superintendent shall be the chief executive officer of the Letchworth Village and subject to the by-laws, rules and regulations thereof, and powers of the board of managers, shall:

1. Have control of the internal affairs and shall maintain discipline therein and enforce compliance with and obedience to all rules, by-laws, regulations and ordinances adopted by the said board of managers for the government, discipline and management of said Letchworth Village.

2. Have the general supervision and control of the grounds and buildings of the village and subordinate officers and employees and the inmates thereof and of all matters related to their government and discipline.

3. Make such additional rules, regulations and orders, not inconsistent with law, or with the rules, regulations or directions of the board of managers of the village as may seem necessary and proper for the government of such institution and its officers and employees and for the employment, discipline and training of the inmates.

4. Appoint, with the approval of the board of managers, the officers, ~~assistants~~ and employees not otherwise provided for

herein, that may be necessary for the economical and efficient management of the Letchworth Village; subject to the approval of the board of managers he shall prescribe their duties and may discharge them at his discretion.

5. Cause full and fair accounts and records of all his doings, and of the business and operation of the village to be kept regularly from time to time in books or on forms provided for that purpose.

6. See that all such accounts and records are properly made up for the annual report to the legislature as required by this act, and present the same to the board of managers, which shall incorporate them into its report to the legislature.

7. Under direction of the managers receive and take into such village all persons legally committed thereto by poor law officers having authority to make such commitments, and cause to be entered in a register kept for the purpose at the time of the commitment and reception of an inmate, the name, age, residence, and such other facts as may be ascertained relative to the origin, condition, peculiarity, or inherited tendencies of such person, and thereafter from time to time add such other information as shall be obtained, so that the register may show as far as possible a complete history of such inmate.

8. On or before the fifth day of each month transmit to the state board of charities a duplicate of the record of commitment and admission of each inmate received into the village and thereafter forward to said state board of charities notice of the discharge, escape, transfer or death of such inmate on or before the fifth day of the month following such discharge, escape, transfer or death.

9. Have power, subject to the supervision and control of the board of managers in the case of the death of any inmate at the village who shall have been maintained therein wholly at public expense, to make or cause to be made at the said Letchworth Village by a member or members of its medical staff, an autopsy on the body of such patient, provided that such autopsy be made not later than twelve hours after the death of such patient, and in such manner as will cause the least possible mutilation, and

provided also that the said Letchworth Village shall print conspicuously upon all application blanks used in the admission of patients to the institution the fact that the officers of said Letchworth Village have the above-stated powers in relation to the making of autopsies.

§ 9. Admission of inmates.— There shall be received and gratuitously supported in the Letchworth Village, epileptics and feeble-minded persons needing custodial care, and resident in the first, second, third and ninth judicial districts of the state upon the application and commitment of the county superintendents of the poor, commissioners of public charities, or other officers authorized by law to make commitments to existing state institutions for the maintenance of epileptic and feeble-minded persons. The said village shall also receive such epileptic and feeble-minded inmates of existing State charitable institutions, and such other epileptic and feeble-minded persons supported at public expense and needing custodial care, except those who are insane, who shall be transferred to said Letchworth Village in accordance with the provisions of law.

§ 10. Discharge of inmates.— The superintendent of the village, with the approval of the managers, or any committee thereof duly empowered to act for the board, shall have the power to discharge inmates sent to the village, through mistaken diagnosis, or for other proper causes, provided that such discharge shall be to the superintendent of the poor, commissioner of public charities or other officer through whose application the inmate was received into the village, and provided further, that should any inmate become insane, such inmate shall be sent to the nearest state hospital of the district of which he was a resident prior to his commitment to the village, in the manner prescribed by law, and provided further, that when any patient has been delivered to the county superintendent of the poor, commissioner of public charities or to the managers or officers of a state hospital or institution, the care and custody of the managers of the Letchworth Village over such inmate shall cease.

§ 11. Notice of opening of the village.— When the Letchworth Village shall be ready for the reception of inmates it shall

be the duty of the board of managers to send official notice of such fact to the county clerks and the clerks of the boards of supervisors of the respective counties in the first, second, third and ninth judicial districts of the state and to the secretary of the state board of charities, and to the fiscal supervisor, and also to furnish such clerks of counties and clerks of boards of supervisors with suitable blanks for the commitment of inmates to said village.

§ 12. This act shall take effect immediately.

REPORT
OF THE
COMMISSION TO SELECT A SITE FOR THE NEW YORK
STATE TRAINING SCHOOL FOR BOYS (Appointed Pursuant to the Provisions of Chapter 665, Laws of 1907).

[95]

COMMISSION TO SELECT A SITE
FOR THE
New York State Training School for Boys

DENNIS MCCARTHY, *Chairman*..... Syracuse, N. Y.
NEWBOLD MORRIS..... New York City.
HOMER FOLKS..... Yonkers, N. Y.
ROBERT W. HILL, *Secretary*.....The Capitol, Albany, N. Y.
Vol. I-P. 2-4

STATE OF NEW YORK

No. 39.

IN SENATE,

APRIL 28, 1909.

Report of the Commission to Select a Site

FOR THE

New York State Training School for Boys

THE CAPITOL, ALBANY, April 28, 1909.

To the HON. HORACE WHITE, *Lieutenant-Governor and President of the Senate:*

SIR.—We have the honor herewith to transmit to the Legislature the report of the Commission to Select a Site for the New York State Training School for Boys, appointed pursuant to the provisions of chapter 665, Laws of 1907.

Yours very respectfully,

DENNIS MCCARTHY,
HOMER FOLKS,
NEWBOLD MORRIS.

REPORT

ALBANY, N. Y., *April 28, 1909.*

To the Legislature:

The Commission appointed pursuant to the provisions of chapter 665 of the Laws of 1907 to select a site for the New York State Training School for Boys, and authorized by chapter 268 of the Laws of 1908 to acquire the site so selected, with the approval of the State Board of Charities and the Governor, respectfully reports that it has selected and acquired a site for the purpose mentioned in the village of Yorktown, Westchester county.

It will be recalled that the bill making appropriation for the purchase of the site originally selected by this Commission and located at Camelot, Dutchess county, in the autumn of 1907, failed of passage in the Legislature of 1908. Subsequently, during the session of 1908, a bill was passed, receiving the approval of the Governor and becoming chapter 268 of the Laws of 1908, which authorized the Commission, not only to select a site, but, upon the approval of the site by the State Board of Charities and the Governor, to purchase the site, by condemnation proceedings or otherwise, and making an appropriation of \$125,000 to cover the purchase of the site and other expenses for the purpose of carrying the legislation into effect. The Commission was further directed to cause to be prepared a general plan of the buildings and improvements to be constructed upon the said site, and to cause to be prepared by the State Architect preliminary plans and specifications of such buildings and improvements, and a statement of the estimated cost thereof; also to take charge of the lands purchased, and, so far as moneys are available therefor, to prepare the said grounds and buildings for the uses of the New York State Training School for Boys.

One change has occurred in the membership of the Commission. Upon his departure for a protracted absence abroad Mr. Isaac

Townsend submitted his resignation, and Mr. Newbold Morris, a member of the Board of Managers of the House of Refuge on Randall's Island, was appointed as his successor.

In view of the expressed desire of members of the Legislature that the proposed institution should, if practicable, be located nearer New York City than the site selected last year the Commission resumed its work upon the enactment of chapter 268, Laws of 1908, and began a systematic search for possible sites nearer New York City. Through its agents and in person the Commission inspected a large number of sites within fifty miles of New York City, including many localities on Long Island, in Westchester county, and in Rockland county. The many difficulties in securing an adequate site at a practicable price in the neighborhood of New York City were set forth in our report of last year, and need not be repeated here. A careful study was made of the possibilities of a large number of sites suggested by various persons. In a considerable number of cases sites which otherwise would have been attractive were impracticable either because of a prohibitive price, absence of adequate water supply, distance from railway facilities, or the certainty of determined and formidable local opposition to such an institution.

After numerous meetings and personal inspections, in some instances several times, of a considerable number of sites, the Commission reached tentative conclusions on September 10, 1908, as to the merits of the various sites under consideration which it might be considered possible to acquire, and instructed its agents to secure options at the earliest possible moment upon the various parcels comprising the site which was the first choice of the Commission, and which was located on the south shore of Lake Mohansic, and distant two and one-quarter miles from the station of Yorktown Heights, Westchester county. In the judgment of the Commission it would have been impossible to purchase the site except by the slow, uncertain and expensive process of condemnation, if the State were known to be the purchaser, and it was deemed advisable to secure options in the name of a third party. Mr. Cleveland A. Dunn, of Scarsdale, N. Y., kindly consented to serve the Commission without compensation in this man-

ner. The Commission considers itself fortunate in that options were secured, which were immediately assigned by Mr. Dunn to the Commission, for the purchase of six parcels of land comprising 490½ acres, at a cost of \$110,300.

The tentative selection was reported to the State Board of Charities, and at a special meeting of that Board held September 19th, upon the favorable report of an inspection of the site by a committee of that board, the site selected was unanimously approved.

The action of the Commission and of the State Board of Charities was reported to the Governor, and received his approval on September 22, 1908. It proved to be impossible to secure options for a longer period than three months, and it became necessary to make all preparations for passing the title within that period. The Attorney-General, at the request of this Commission, designated a special Deputy Attorney-General to consider and pass upon the deeds submitted by the owners of the various properties. The State Engineer and Surveyor, at the request of this Commission, caused to be made a survey of the boundaries of the various parcels.

All the preliminary steps having been arranged satisfactorily, the owners of the various parcels met with the Commission and the special Deputy Attorney-General at Albany on December 15, 1908, in the office of the Comptroller. Deeds conveying to the State a good, clear and unencumbered title to the lands comprising the site were submitted by the owners and approved by the Attorney-General, the purchase money was paid to the owners, and the site selected became the property of the State.

The Commission arranged for the care of the property, practically without expense, including the various buildings thereon, pending further action by the Legislature providing for its improvement and use. At the request of the Commission, the State Architect kindly prepared specifications for such a topographical survey as would be needed in the preparation of plans and specifications for buildings and improvements. Bids were invited from nine surveyors, and the contract was awarded to the lowest bidder, the Commission having secured evidence of his proficiency and ability to perform the work satisfactorily.

LOCATION.

The property is in Yorktown, Westchester county, just south of Lake Mohansic, which forms the northern boundary of a considerable part of the farm.

ACCESSIBILITY.

The nearest railway station is Yorktown Heights, two miles distant on the Putnam division of the New York Central railroad. It is 35.76 miles from the 155th Street Station in New York to Yorktown Heights, with nine passenger trains each way daily.

ROUND TRIP RATE.

The vice-president of the traffic department of the New York Central Railroad Company states that a round trip excursion rate will be made to Yorktown Heights and return, of forty-five cents for children and of ninety cents for adults. (See Appendix.)

CHARACTER OF HIGHWAY.

Yorktown Heights has about the same elevation above sea level as the site purchased, and the highway connecting the two is free from heavy grades, affording an easy road for driving or teaming, being for more than half of the distance a recently constructed State road.

The tract purchased contains 490½ acres. In shape it is rectangular, something over a mile in length from north to south and from three-quarters of a mile to a mile in width. The altitude of the land above sea level varies from 400 feet to 600 feet, the major part being near the level of 500 feet. Mohansic is an attractive lake lying at the 450 foot level. It is not quite a mile long, about one-fifth of a mile wide. The land on the south shore—that of the site—rises somewhat more rapidly from the shore of the lake than on the other sides, reaching the 500 foot level at a distance of a little more than 500 feet, and the 600 foot level at a distance of from 1,200 to 1,500 feet. From this high level the main part of the farm is a plateau gently sloping to the south. At the southwest corner the elevation is 400 feet.

SCENIC AND HISTORIC.

The tract belongs to a region justly celebrated for beautiful scenery. With its lake front, its varied contour and wide outlook, it is an attractive spot with great possibilities of landscape development. It is considered an ideal spot on which to build a training school for boys. Added to the attractions of nature are historic associations of Colonial and Revolutionary times. From this elevation one looks south to the Croton scarcely two miles away, where Washington encamped with the Continental army just before the memorable journey by forced marches to Yorktown, Va., to attack Cornwallis. Through Yorktown Major Andre made his way from his conference with Arnold, stopping with his guide for breakfast at one of its farm houses on the morning of his capture. These happenings and many like them, detailed with great circumstantiality in local chronicles, give to Yorktown an interesting and a distinctly historic setting.

WATER.

The waters, both of the springs upon the tract and of Lake Mohansic, have been examined and analyzed by the State Department of Health. The full report is in Appendix A. The conclusions briefly are, as to the springs: "There are no conditions that would make the water from these springs unsafe, if the strictly local surroundings are properly cared for." "With the exception of the so-called bungalow spring on the Tekulsky place and small springs upon the Perry farm, most of the springs showed the effect of the drought, either by diminished flow or by being actually dry." "The amount of water available on the property from any source other than the lake, is too small to be considered for any considerable number of people."

"The sanitary quality of the lake is satisfactory. * * * The water is entirely satisfactory for boiler and laundry purposes.

"The chlorin value was normal for this territory and shows that pollution from animal and human sources is very limited. * * *

"The lake is probably seeded with algae growth each warm season. They are not usually considered dangerous to health.

"In considering Lake Mohansic as a source of drinking water, it will probably be necessary to consider filtering the water to remove these algae growths." Even during the very unusual drought of last summer the larger springs on all of the places supplied sufficient water for a considerable dairy.

THE FARM AND ITS QUALITIES.

From the report of the agricultural expert, George T. Powell (Appendix C), the following observations are selected: "I found the tract composed of a drift somewhat variable in character, but mainly a gravelly and sandy loam, with some portions containing an admixture of clay." "The land is rolling, the rocky portions not being excessive." "The land best suited to cultivation * * * lies mainly and well within the center of the tract, while the hillside pastures and the lowlands, which also give the best and most enduring pasture, lie upon the outside or boundaries, a singularly favorable combination."

"The land best suited to pasturage is well provided with water from living springs."

"The soil and climatic conditions are favorable to a wide variety of productions. Hay and grain for the maintenance of teams and dairy cows. The soil is peculiarly well suited for corn. * * * It may be grown practically on all the tillage land of the four parcels. * * * Potatoes may be grown on all the tillage land. The soil being of a loamy character, it will produce the finest quality. There are a number of fields containing very excellent soil for gardening."

ORCHARDS.

"On the Tekulsky property is a swamp of two acres, which if underdrained would make excellent land for celery. There are apple orchards on each parcel * * * and on the Winterburn place a very good peach orchard. * * * The trees need pruning and spraying, while the soil should have some fertilizer."

THE DAIRY.

"The land will maintain over 100 cows, producing all the food for them, excepting grain."

THE SITE.

"The site is well selected and it is admirably suited to the purposes for which it is desired."

THE BUILDINGS UPON THE PROPERTY.

There are four dwelling houses on the tract, with farm barns for each. In the description following, that on the Tekulsky farm will be designated No. 1; that on the Winterburn Farm No. 2; that on the Perry Farm No. 3; that on the Pierce Farm No. 4.

House No. 1 is a roomy dwelling in a good state of preservation, adequate to the wants of a family of eight or nine. In the barn basements are tie-ups for forty cows. There are also a horse barn and carriage-house, hay lofts, and a small ice house.

House No. 2 is a comparatively new house of twenty-one rooms. It is adequate to house and to care for fourteen people. The barns have tie-ups for over forty cows, hay lofts, horse stable, carriage-house and a good small ice house.

House No. 3 is an old rambling house which has been enlarged, and it is not of great value. It will accommodate a family of ten persons. The barn can care for thirty or more cows. There are hay lofts and a horse stable with wagon shed. The house and barns are built on a hillside, and advantage has been taken of this fact to build entrances from the ground to both first and second stories of house and barns.

House No. 4 is a small, story-and-a-half structure about twenty-four feet square, with six small rooms. There is one small barn.

POSSIBLE USE OF OLD BUILDINGS.

Dwellings Nos. 1 and 2 might, with some changes, afford housing for groups of fifteen boys each and the necessary attendants, but would lend themselves more economically to the housing of employees. Houses Nos. 3 and 4 are not suited in their present shape for housing boys, and are probably not worth spending money for alterations to fit them for that use. The cow stables on all four of the places are dark, unsanitary basements. The barns, if kept in repair, might furnish adequate storage for all the hay and grain likely to be raised on the tract, if their location and dis-

tribution are deemed convenient, or they might be removed to more convenient sites, put on good foundations and repaired to furnish barns for the cottage farms.

The amended act, chapter 268 of the Laws of 1908, laid upon the Commission the duty "to report to the Legislature of 1909 a report of all their proceedings under this Act." "They shall at the same time submit to the Legislature proposed bill for the purpose of completing the erection and equipment of new buildings on the site selected by them * * * and providing generally for carrying out the objects and purposes of this Act. They shall also cause to be prepared a general plan of the buildings and improvements necessary to be constructed and made upon such land in order to effect the location of the said New York State Training School for Boys thereon, and shall cause to be prepared by the State Architect preliminary plans and specifications of such buildings and improvements and the estimated cost thereof."

The Commission deemed it wise before determining upon any of the features of such a general plan to collect data and secure expert advice upon buildings, equipment and organization. To this end a set of questions subjoined was submitted to some of the most experienced and presumably most expert superintendents engaged in the work of training delinquent boys. Five of these, namely, Superintendent Franklin H. Briggs, of the State Agricultural and Industrial School at Industry, Superintendent Charles D. Hilles, of the Children's Village, Dobbs Ferry, Superintendent F. H. Nibecker, of Glen Mills, Pa., Superintendent Joseph P. Byers, of Randall's Island House of Refuge, New York, and Mr. T. F. Chapin, former superintendent of Lyman School for Boys, Westboro, Mass., were invited to visit the site and participate in a conference on these questions. All accepted and visited the site and attended the conference except Mr. Nibecker, who was unfortunately detained. He later presented a very clear set of answers to the questions. Five other superintendents to whom the questions were submitted also presented answers which have proved quite serviceable, and to these, as well as those who attended the conference, we would hereby acknowledge our obligation. The superintendents who responded, in addition to those mentioned above, were Edwin P. Wentworth, Superintendent of

the State School for Boys, Portland, Me.; James Allison, Superintendent Cincinnati House of Refuge, Cincinnati, Ohio; E. E. York, Superintendent Indiana Boys' School, Plainfield, Indiana; W. W. McLain, formerly Superintendent of St. Charles School for Boys, St. Charles, Illinois; and R. R. Reeder, Superintendent of Orphanage, Hastings-on-Hudson, New York. In all, ten sets of answers from as many experienced superintendents were submitted, analyzed, discussed and criticised.

A statement of the classes of boys to be provided for; a copy of the questions in full; and the gist of the answers, with the opinion of this Commission thereon, and its recommendations, follow:

CLASSES OF BOYS TO WHOM THE QUESTIONS REFER.

These facts indicate the classes of boys under consideration. There were committed during 1907 and 1908 to the House of Refuge on Randall's Island and to the State Agricultural and Industrial School at Industry, classified by ages:

	House of Refuge.		State Agricultural and Industrial School.	
	No.	Per Cent.	No.	Per Cent.
Under 14 years	347	.524	389	.585
Fourteen years and over	315	.476	276	.415
	662		665	

Classified as to proportion from large cities:

Of commitments to the House of Refuge 89 per cent. are from New York City.

Of commitments to the State Agricultural and Industrial School 39 per cent. are from Erie, Monroe and Onondaga counties, i. e., from Buffalo, Rochester and Syracuse.

Classified as to percentage of confirmed offenders:

Of 379 boys committed in 1908 to the House of Refuge 45 per cent. had served one or more terms in other institutions.

Of 408 boys committed to the State Agricultural and Industrial School during the same period 40 per cent. had previously served one or more terms in other institutions.

The commitments of the two years named above indicate a probable population on the basis of the present period of detention of not less than 800 pupils for the New York State Training School for Boys.

THE QUESTIONS.

The fifteen questions presented for consideration by the Conference are:

1. Of 800 boys of the classes above indicated, how many shall be cared for in cottage groups, and how many (if any) in larger structures provided with means of forcible detention?

What provisions, i. e., what buildings, of what form, type and structure, shall be provided for the detention of incorrigibles, confirmed run-aways, and boys of the more difficult class?

2. As to the boys cared for in cottage groups, what shall be the number in each cottage?

3. What shall be the general distribution of the cottages? Shall they be grouped:

(a) Closely about a "Village Green," or

(b) Divided into two or three separate groups of cottages; or

(c) Shall they be scattered as widely as possible over the entire 500 acres; or

(d) Shall some of them be grouped in 1, 2 or 3 groups, and the remainder scattered widely over the 500 acres?

4. Shall each cottage, or some of them (and if so, how many) be assigned to a particular parcel of land for cultivation, and provided with a barn, live stock, etc?

5. What portion of the boys can be interested in agriculture, horticulture and similar out-door work during their stay in the institution?

6. Shall as many boys as possible be interested in and occupied in agriculture, horticulture and similar outdoor work, irrespective of the probability that they will follow such work after leaving the institution?

7. Shall the ordinary academic instruction be given at a central school or in the various cottages?

8. What forms of manual training, or definite trade teaching shall be provided, and what character and size of buildings will be required for this purpose?

9. Aside from the cottages or other structures in which the boys live, what additional buildings will be required, and what shall be the general character and approximate size of each?

10. What rooms shall the cottage contain:

- (a) For purposes of instruction;
- (b) For purposes of recreation;
- (c) For dormitory purposes;
- (d) For employees;
- (e) For kitchen, dining room, storage, etc.;
- (f) For toilet purposes;
- (g) For all other purposes?

11. What shall be the material used in the construction of the individual cottage? What will be the cost of the individual cottage?

12. If the cottages are to be somewhat scattered, or some of them, how shall they be heated?

13. To what extent is it practicable to use the boys in:

- (a) The improvement of the grounds;
- (b) Excavation or similar work in preparation for buildings;
- (c) Construction of buildings;
- (d) Decoration, or the equipment and furnishing of buildings?

14. What steps (if any) shall be taken at this time, or before, or at the time of the actual opening of the institution, to insure harmonious relations with neighbors or with the village authorities of Yorktown Heights?

15. Shall any boys be transferred from the present House of Refuge to the new institution, or shall only new commitments be received at the new institution?

OPINION OF CONFEREES AND OF THE COMMISSION.

The answers to the questions, with the views of this Commission thereon may be summarized as follows:

Q. 1. Of 800 boys of the classes above indicated, how many shall be cared for in cottage groups, and how many (if any) in larger structures provided with means of forcible detention?

Assuming a population of 800 the preponderance of opinion

and of argument of the consultants was overwhelmingly that all should be cared for in cottages, and that no other structures for their forcible detention should be built. If a jail is to be built, make the institution a jail. A jail may be a reform school, although it has generally proved quite the reverse. It was well-nigh the unanimous opinion of the consultants that if there were boys who were not amenable to the cottage plan of treatment, they should be cared for elsewhere in another institution, but they felt sure there would be very few such boys. One of the ablest and most experienced superintendents said: "I am earnestly opposed to any provision of the kind implied in the question, as the most objectionable feature of the school will give its class and character to the whole school. There should be no prison facilities, unless it is intended that the institution is to be classed as a juvenile prison or jail, in which your true school methods shall be considered only mitigated treatment for the more trusty."

It will not do to assume because congregate methods have been confronted with the problem of incorrigible boys that the delinquent boy in the cottage school will develop into an incorrigible. The so-called incorrigible of the congregate school seems to be for the most part a product of his environment. Repression invites and develops resistance. If the boy is stupid and obstinate, it results in open rebellion,—if bright, cautious and combative, it results in an adept at having his own wicked way by clandestine and nefarious methods, and eventuates in the education of a criminal. Forcible detention in an open school is considered an anachronism and a reproach, the principle underlying the cottage system being to draw out the good in a child by appealing to his better nature through normal surroundings, and not to control by repression. The Commission recommends, without hesitation or qualification, that all be cared for in cottages.

NUMBER IN A COTTAGE.

Q. 2. As to the boys cared for in cottage groups, what shall be the number in each cottage?

On this question also there was substantial unanimity among the conferees, who submitted answers in writing, eight favoring the small cottage group, 12, 15 and 25, and two the large, i. e., 50–80

In our view the small cottage group (not more than sixteen) has in largest degree the promises and possibilities of real home and family life, and should be adopted. One superintendent aptly said: "The important thing is character formation, and a street boy's character is formed by contact with a strong personality. If he comes in personal contact, over a long series of months, with a man or woman of character, who can draw out and develop the best that is in him, he may be permanently cured of incorrigibility. There is no discordant note among educators that 'the greatest thing that a teacher ever brings to a child is not the subject-matter, but the uplift which comes from heart contact with a strong personality.'" In the large group, on the other hand, the moulding forces are the stronger minded of the boys themselves, and not the house father and mother. If the house father and mother are to be companions of the boy, and if their influence and ideals are to be paramount in setting standards of life, the group must not be so large that this feeling of companionship is lost and the feeling of irresponsibility as one of a mass substituted.

A cottage number of fifty or forty or even thirty is too large for the personal influence of the house father and mother to make an effective appeal to the boy in work, in conduct, in language, and in the little amenities of life which belong to a social group of which the house father and mother are the center and source of moral energy. The mere physical strain upon the nervous system in controlling and directing a large group of restless boys through most of their waking hours leaves little spiritual power to energize and direct toward better things, those instincts of which no boy's mind is entirely destitute. The practical result is that the fagged worker gives up trying and thinks he has done his duty if he simply keeps the boys from running away. The importance of individual training and of the personal influence of those immediately in charge of the boy cannot be too strongly emphasized.

DISTRIBUTION OF COTTAGES.

Q. 3. What shall be the general distribution of the cottages? Shall they be grouped:

- (a) Closely about a "Village Green"; or
- (b) Divided into two or three separate groups of cottages; or

(c) Shall they be scattered as widely as possible over the entire 500 acres; or

(d) Shall some of them be grouped in 1, 2, or 3 groups, and the remainder scattered widely over the 500 acres?

On this question there was divergence of opinion. The reasons given by those favoring close grouping are mainly alleged administrative advantages, an alleged economy in heating and lighting, also certain architectural considerations, together with some supposed social advantages for employees.

The arguments for the wide separation of the cottages are the opportunity for a more complete segregation of classes, a better and more interesting environment, a deeper sense of independence and ownership on the part of the cottage group; hence a chance to engender a better esprit, a stronger feeling of family unity, and finally to develop to a greater degree individual responsibility through the pride and interest of the boy in his cottage home.

The arguments for close grouping of cottages appear to us to be based largely upon the fact that certain features of the congregate system have been transferred to the cottage system in the case of many schools which have exchanged the old regime for the cottage plan. The most pronounced survival of the old system and seemingly the one most at variance with the principle of segregation underlying the cottage system, is that which treats the pupil population, in regard to the day's occupations, as a congregate institution, assembling them in the morning at a central point, breaking up the cottage group and detailing the boys without reference to their cottage groups or managers, to outdoor work, to shop, to school; then reassembling them at noon in order to restore the cottage groups and send them to their respective cottages for dinner; repeating the massing and dispersing after dinner for the work or school of the afternoon; and still again the reassembling and redistribution before supper. Under such a plan of administration, the close grouping of cottages is logically demanded as an economy of time. It seems to us, however, illogical to group cottages closely for purely administrative or economic reasons, if the moral health of the boy can be promoted by a wider separation of cottages. The argument for a close grouping seems to assume that a reform school is like a big business enterprise of which the

superintendent or his deputy is the director, the cottage managers the foremen, the boys the laborers, to be divided, detailed, and assigned to get so much work done, and make the business show to the best advantage in material productivity. Such methods, good doubtless in a congregate school, are utterly incongruous in a school arranged on the cottage plan. The detail officer of a congregate institution who assembles all the population in the morning, dividing and grouping for the efficient carrying on of the institution's labor for the day, has no place in the cottage system where the groups are already made and should be maintained. Besides nowhere is the chance for contamination greater than in the large liberty which must characterize the working group, unless prison methods of supervision are adopted, such as making it a punishable offense for a boy to look at or speak to another in the work gang. It is largely to avoid this pernicious intimacy and consequent danger of contamination that the cottage segregation has been employed.

The cottage with its foster father and mother, with its home methods, and home influences, is the dynamic force, so far as environment is concerned, through which the boy is to be moulded and influenced. The unity and continuity of the cottage group must be conserved and promoted, by making it a home and a family, in its occupations and its school work, as well as in its social life. To break up the groups for utilitarian reasons is to break the cottage bond at a vital point. The foster father can nowhere more effectively be the pattern and inspiration of his boys than by instruction and example and close association, *in manual labor*. To take his boys away from him to facilitate the congregate work of the institution is a long step toward making of him a mere lodging-house keeper. To avoid such a lamentable outcome, an institution on the cottage plan must be treated in a manner which preserves the integrity of the cottage group during the entire day. If this is done with judgment and care, we are convinced that the material results will not suffer in comparison with those of the best ordered congregate institutions, while the end for which the cottage was adopted, the moral development of the boy, will be greatly promoted. To secure this desirable result, each cottage father and his assistants, the boys, must have a vocation

suited to interest their minds as well as engage their physical powers. The farm fulfills this demand and is the most available and usable occupation. Farm work, naturally, demands a considerable separation of the cottages so engaged.

There are other occupations necessary to the business of the institution, such as bakers, tailors, carpenters, etc., but even for those we believe a reasonably wide separation of the cottages is necessary as well as desirable. The house father and mother of each cottage should be allowed to train the group under their charge, unhindered by the close proximity of other cottages, such neighborhood making undesirable association with members of other groups easy to get and difficult to prevent. Granted that the training and reformation of the individual boy are the ultimate objects, it is hard to gainsay the argument for as wide a separation of cottages as possible, and as great a freedom from the semi-military officialism of the congregate school as is consistent with carrying on the business of an institution.

Considering the industrial needs of the institution and the training which may be imparted by the teaching of such industries, the Commission recommends that fifty cottages be built. The Commission recommends that these cottages, so far as the occupation of their pupils go, be classified in three divisions; that one division of sixteen cottages be known as the industrial division, arranged so as to be at least 300 feet apart; certain of them as near the power plant as may be and subdivided as to occupations as follows:

Two cottages for cooks and bakers.

One cottage for storekeepers and distribution.

Two cottages for tailors.

One cottage for shoemakers.

One cottage for engineers and firemen.

One cottage for plumbers, pipers and tinsmiths.

Two cottages for masons and concreters.

One cottage for painters and paper hangers.

Two cottages for laundrymen.

One cottage for printers.

Two cottages for carpenters.

A second division of six cottages, to be known as the unskilled laborers' group, may be necessary to provide for the unreliable boys who may demand very close supervision. The members of it will break the rock for roads, dig ditches, repair the roads, etc.

The third division, to be known as the agricultural division, including two receiving cottages, will require twenty-eight cottages. The receiving cottages should be at least 500 feet apart and separated from all other cottages as far as practicable. The balance of the twenty-eight should be separated as widely as the farm plots will conveniently admit. We suggest a distribution of farm activities by cottages as follows:

Two cottages for teamsters, horse stables.

Four cottages for greenhouses and forcing beds.

Five cottages for fruit raising.

Eight cottages for dairying, milk production.

One cottage for butter and cheese factory.

Six cottages for general farming.

Two cottages for isolation and receiving of new commitments and for road care and cleaning.

This separation and grouping of the cottages for the various agricultural and industrial needs of the institution seem to the Commission to afford not only the best arrangement to serve the purposes of the institution, but also to offer a wide opportunity for a varied and interesting training which cannot fail to be practically useful to every boy.

WHAT COTTAGES SHALL HAVE LAND.

Q. 4. Shall each cottage, or some of them (and if so, how many) be assigned to a particular parcel of land for cultivation, and provided with a barn, live stock, etc?

All the superintendents who emphasize the family and its value as the chief training force, advise a garden for each cottage, and animals and housing for the same as far as practicable.

THE FUNCTION OF THE FARM.

It is the opinion of the Commission that, in seeking for employment which may engage and hold the interest of growing boys

from twelve to sixteen years of age, nothing has been found which equals the farm with its variety of occupation — the tending of growing crops, the care of animals, the chance to be personally responsible for the comfort and well-being of living things. Such activities quicken and enliven the mind, appeal to the better nature, besides building up a healthy body through exercise in the open air. It is believed, therefore, that as large a number as the exigencies of a proper carrying on of the institution will permit should be thus employed.

Every cottage to which a farm has not been assigned should have an acre and three-quarters or more of land for cottage site, playgrounds, garden, and a small hennerly. With a generous garden for each cottage, something may be done in floriculture by every cottage group. New York does an immense business in cut flowers, and any boy with training enough to make him handy and intelligent in this line of work can get employment with the growers of cut flowers at wages far better than the shops will pay.

For cottages to which greenhouses and forcing beds are assigned, five acres each will be sufficient. For fruit, ten acres each will give ample scope for instruction purposes, and an area large enough to afford abundant fruit for institution use. For the milk and crop farms there will be the rather small allotment of nineteen acres each available.

The milk farms should have stabling for ten cows and one yoke of working oxen, each with silos and hay lofts. Those for general farming should have stables in which to care for working oxen. The fruit farmers might have in charge the hog raising, which goes well with orchard cultivation. The teamsters should not be expected to cultivate more than gardens and care for the teams which would do all the teaming and driving between the site and Yorktown Heights. Oxen are suggested for the farm work, because they are very effective in all kinds of team cultivation of the soil, and also because they are far more economical with inexperienced boys for drivers, and if treated well as to care and food, they will always be ready for the slaughter-house if they meet with any mishap, whereas a maimed horse is worthless.

HOW MANY CAN BE INTERESTED IN AGRICULTURE?

Q. 5. What portion of the boys can be interested in agriculture, horticulture and similar outdoor work during their stay in the institution?

The uniform testimony of all the superintendents consulted is that the majority of boys can easily be interested in agriculture, especially in the care of animals. Some placed the percentage of those who could be so interested as high as 100. In the view of the Commission, this is possible only if there be skill and interest in the subject on the part of the cottage manager. An indifferent teacher of farming cannot succeed any better than any other poor teacher. It is not to be expected that all or the majority of the boys will manifest a spontaneous and sustained interest in agricultural pursuits, but with a good instructor and a steady, inspiring influence, most boys will carry on the farm work with more pleasure and profit than any other form of labor.

SHALL BOYS BE GIVEN AN AGRICULTURAL TRAINING?

Q. 6. Shall as many boys as possible be interested and occupied in agriculture, horticulture, and other similar outdoor work irrespective of the probability that they will follow such work after leaving the institution?

All the consultants, except the extreme advocates of centralized cottage groups, assert the importance to the delinquent boy of agriculture and its allied occupations as a beneficial and interesting training quite apart from his future calling. One consultant says, "The training afforded through interesting work in agriculture, horticulture and other similar outdoor work is the most valuable training possible for a boy, irrespective of whatever occupation he may engage in in after years." The Commission is quite inclined to agree with the enthusiastic expert who is making a most creditable demonstration of this opinion in his institution at Rush. It also sees in the farm an engrossing and complete change of environment which may hold the boy's interest during a critical period, when his energy and activity so much outrun his judgment.

SHALL THERE BE A CENTRAL SCHOOL OF LETTERS?

Q. 7. Shall the ordinary academic instruction be given at a central school, or in the various cottages?

The ungraded school carried on in the cottage in which the boys live is strongly advocated by one consultant, who declares that association in schoolrooms of the central school building is a danger point for contamination of the less vicious by those of more wayward tendencies. He adduces his unfortunate experiences with a very excellent graded school in a large congregate institution as confirmatory of his opinion; a partial answer to his judgment thus fortified by that most telling of all arguments, experience, is that the pupils of his central graded school had been trained in the corrupting atmosphere of a congregate institution, and it could hardly be expected that noxious effects would not go with them into the schoolroom and crop out there. The other consultants are unanimous in their indorsement of the central school, alleging that the advantages in making use of a teaching force and teaching material outweigh the dangers, and that to depart so far from the usage which is found good for the average boy in the open community of going away from his house to his school is illogical. The Commission is impressed with the danger of promiscuous association of boys of different cottage groups in a central school. It also sees much force in the arguments for a central school as an economy of teaching force and facilities. It has, with the aid of one of its advisers, worked out a plan which it recommends as avoiding the dangers and securing the benefits of the central school. It is that the class unit in the schools, whether academic or manual, be of the same size as the cottage unit, and that the cottage group, unless in very exceptional cases, be preserved as a class group. Upon this basis, but upon this basis only, the Commission recommends the central school.

SCOPE OF THE EDUCATIONAL PLAN FOR THE NEW YORK
TRAINING SCHOOL FOR BOYS.

Q. 8. What form of manual training or definite trade teaching shall be provided, and what character and size of buildings will be required for this purpose?

On the question of manual training and trade schools there was considerable difference of opinion, some advising that manual training be derived from the agriculture, with no formal manual training through mechanical tools, others that only trades be taught, while others contended earnestly for manual training as a part of the school work and for the teaching of trades to a limited extent. It seems to the Commission best to look at the question a little more broadly than the somewhat categorical answers of the consultants suggest. Inasmuch as the importance of this State Training School begins and ends in the boys under training, in discussing the question, "What forms of manual training or definite trade teaching shall be provided"? the Commission does not regard the expression of its views upon some fundamental facts as superfluous, because the kind of training to be given conditions considerably the plan and arrangements of buildings to be erected. The typical delinquent is more or less a specimen of retarded development, in need of physical improvement and mental stimulation, that he may be capable of entertaining the ambitions of the average American boy. He needs not only the complete change of physical atmosphere which the small cottage colony affords, but an intellectual awakening which shall make him capable of grasping moral standards and of making moral judgments. His hands will be found, in our judgment, the best approach to his intellect. To make things, to do things, to bring things to pass, will catch and hold his interest. Hence all the operations of the institution need to be organized, arranged, and carried out with a view to make him an interested participant, and an important agency in its activities. Every man in charge of a cottage should be an efficient teacher of something, and to effect a harmonious and symmetrical training should co-operate with all other agencies. In scholastic lines nothing beyond a good common school should be attempted, special emphasis being laid upon the ability to read. Along with this should go a good elementary manual training in the use of woodworking tools. All boys who show ability and ambition to learn a trade should be afforded adequate opportunity to do so, so far as their age and the length of their stay permit, but those of little mechanical ability should be encouraged to learn the simpler trades, or to train for work on the farm. As far as

practicable, every boy should be taught to do some kind of remunerative work efficiently before he leaves the school. One of the most important lessons he is to learn is to like work. This is a necessary part of his moral awakening. The delinquent boy has seldom arrived at the "hobo" stage of inactivity and degeneracy. He likes to be active; if his work is made interesting, he will like work and may form the habit of liking it.

The education which does not place moral effects foremost is fundamentally weak. Didactic moral teaching has little effect; but in all the disciplinary training of the boy, in his labor, his physical or manual training, or mental exercises, the cardinal principles of morality must constitute the warp, and the information, knowledge and acquired skill the woof, of his garment of righteousness. If intellectual honesty, the perception of and love for fundamental laws of universal truth, are not the result of his education and training by the State, the State has spent its money in vain.

In the central school building should be rooms for manual training, and the training in the use of tools should be made a fundamental part of his schooling. Elementary training with woodworking tools compels concentration and makes it easy to give sustained attention, in which regard wayward boys are usually very deficient. It compels exactness, lays a mental foundation through the physical organism for building concepts of honesty and truth, and has long been recognized as having a special educational value for delinquent and deficient children. After ten months of the manual training, boys of fifteen years or over who show mechanical aptitudes may replace the manual training with the learning of a trade, preference being given to trades which can have practical exercise through the needs of the institution. For this purpose a building of simple, solid construction would be needed. The trades most valuable in the carrying on of the institution are tailoring, shoemaking, carpentry, masonry, bakery, house-painting, printing, book-binding, laundering. The needs of the institution render the exercise of most of these trades necessary. These, together with agriculture in its various forms, constitute the materials for a good and varied course in industrial training. The cottage managers should be the teachers and leaders in this industrial training.

A two-story building 130 feet long by 40 feet wide would give eight rooms for instruction and work, four in each story with separate entrances to each, and no communication between rooms. This last point is very desirable to assist in fixing and maintaining responsibility for tools and materials, and to maintain the segregation of cottage groups. Such a building would provide for the trades except those of blacksmithing, painting, bakery and laundry. The bakery and laundry would be most economically cared for in buildings near the power plant. The paint shop and blacksmith shop should be located in a single separate building, for reasons of cleanliness and safety from fire.

ADDITIONAL BUILDINGS.

Q. 9. Aside from the cottages or other structures in which the boys live, what additional buildings will be required, and what shall be the general character and approximate size of each?

The buildings enumerated by the consultants and which the Commission recommends, including the schoolhouse and shops already named, are:

1. An administration building.
2. A school building.
3. Shops.
4. General utility buildings for boiler, engine, dynamos, store-rooms, cold storage, bakery, laundry, etc.
5. Superintendent's home.
6. The use of present dwellings on the property for housing employees.
7. Hospitals.
8. Chapels.
9. Auditorium, gymnasium and drill hall.
10. Housing for animals and farm products, barns, henneries, piggeries, greenhouses, small firehouse.
11. Pumping and filtration plant for water supply.
12. Sewage system.

THE ADMINISTRATION BUILDING.

The administration building should contain ample office room for the business of the institution. One main office, 18' x 24';

Superintendent's private office, about 12' x 16'; assistant superintendent's office, 12' x 16'; parole agent's office, 16' x 20'; manager's room, 18' x 24'; one social room for employees, 18' x 24'; dining-room, 18' x 24'; serving-room, 12' x 12'; four sleeping-rooms, 12' x 12' for guests.

SCHOOL BUILDING.

The school building should contain twelve classrooms, twelve rooms for the elementary manual training and an assembly-room large enough to assemble all who will be in the schoolhouse at one time for any general exercises like chorus singing. The manual training should be made an integral part of the school work, and there will need to be as many classrooms for it as for the literary work, and as many teachers. The schoolrooms should be for sixteen pupils, which is as large a number of this class of boys as ought to be under one teacher, and which makes possible the preservation in the school class of the cottage group. The manual training teacher can handle sixteen. Dividing the school period of three hours into two parts, of one and one-half hours each, one part for literary work and one part for manual training, including number work and drawing, the number under each teacher would be only sixteen, affording opportunity for individual attention so necessary with these backward boys. This arrangement keeps the cottage group intact, thus conserving all the advantages which accrue from segregation, and at the same time gaining the advantages which a central school building affords in the way of efficient supervision of the teaching, good facilities for doing the work and the widest and most effective use of special teaching talent. In this way every boy will have one-half of the day clear for industrial training, on the farm, in the shop, or at housework, and in the other half of the day a three-hour period for school and hand training. In this plan every set of cottage managers gets each school day a little breathing space, so essential to mental equanimity. The classrooms for sixteen pupils should contain about 350 square feet of floor space, those for manual training not less than 450 or 500 square feet of floor space.

THE GENERAL UTILITY BUILDINGS.

The general utility buildings should contain boilers, coal bunkers, engines, dynamos, storerooms, bakery, laundry and cold rooms. These structures, if built on a slope near the lake, may make use of the grade to gain entrance from the ground to two stories.

HOUSING FOR EMPLOYEES.

There must be also a building or buildings for employees, aside from teachers and cottage managers. The most profitable use which can be made of the two farm houses on the so-called Tekulsky and Winterburn places would be to devote them to this use. Without alteration except for plumbing, these two houses would be usable, and with a modest outlay could be made equal to all demands for twenty or twenty-five people for some time to come.

SUPERINTENDENT'S RESIDENCE.

The superintendent's house should be a simple, comfortable cottage with at least six sleeping rooms.

HOSPITALS.

The hospital should contain two wards for a dozen beds each and four rooms for a single bed each. It should contain a dispensary, a dentist's office, and an office for eye and ear examination and a surgeon's operating-room. Besides these there should be rooms for at least four nurses and attendants and a kitchen and adequate toilet facilities.

HOSPITAL FOR CONTAGIOUS DISEASES.

A simple building with six or eight isolation-rooms for a single bed each, kitchen and toilet facilities, should be built for quarantine purposes.

GYMNASIUM AND AUDITORIUM.

The gymnasium was favored by all except one, several advising a swimming pool as an adjunct. It seems to the Commission that a gymnasium is very desirable. Many of these delinquent boys are lacking in physical development—some are actually deformed—who, by proper physical exercises, might be brought up to a normal

physical standard and even cured of deformity. An important step in reform is to get the boy to appreciate his physical powers, to take pride in having a well-developed body. The Commission would, therefore, recommend unqualifiedly a gymnasium of generous proportions, say 60' x 150'. This should be a one-story building, with a basement in which there would be room to construct a capacious swimming pool, the necessary showers, toilet and wardrobe accommodations. A swimming pool 40' x 100' would be none too large. A gymnasium of this size would serve for a drill hall for 400 at one time. This building might also serve as an auditorium and amusement hall.

ROOMS IN COTTAGES.

Q. 10. What rooms shall the cottage contain:

- (a) For purposes of instruction;
- (b) For purposes of recreation;
- (c) For dormitory purposes;
- (d) For employces;
- (e) For kitchen, dining room, storage, etc.;
- (f) For toilet purposes;
- (g) For all other purposes?

The recommendations of the consulting superintendents contained this pertinent advice, that there be no unnecessary room or rooms in the cottage, only the indispensable rooms for everyday use. Also that they be arranged to facilitate care and to obviate as far as possible unnecessary going up and down stairs for purposes of instruction and supervision.

The Commission recommends:

(a) That there be no room for instruction as such, because the central school building seems preferable for reasons already stated.

(b) That there should be a pleasant sitting-room about 30' x 16', where reading and games can be carried on, as well as where the amenities of social life can be instilled and practiced.

(c) The sleeping-room should have sixty square feet of floor space for each bed, to comply with the law as well as for health considerations.

Shall the dormitory for the boys be an open single ward with beds for all, or two rooms with part in each, or shall the boys

have individual rooms? Those who have had experience with the cells of the congregate system disapprove of separate rooms, but all who have tried the single sleeping-room in the open family school commend its use. One says, "Each boy should be furnished with a room all his own, for boys need privacy as well as men." One worker with delinquent boys, having over twenty years' successful experience in cottage management, twelve years or more with the open dormitory and over ten years in the use of single sleeping-rooms for boys from thirteen to sixteen years of age, testifies that, in point of getting hold of a boy and making a revolution in him, the single room type is so far superior to the dormitory type that the two cannot be compared. We are not prepared to advocate so radical a use of the single sleeping-room as to recommend its adoption for all the cottages, but as each boy when he is paroled will presumably be intrusted with the occupancy of a room by himself without supervision, it seems to us that he should have a trial at it while in the institution under supervision. We, therefore, recommend that single rooms be provided for at least 10 per cent. of the boys, in cottages to be known as Honor Cottages, and that every boy for at least three months before his parole have the privilege of occupying a single room in one of the Honor Cottages. In order to preserve the classification by divisions, we recommend two single-bedroom cottages for the industrial divisions, and four for the agricultural division. We also recommend for the balance of the cottages two open dormitories with eight boys each, rather than one with sixteen.

(d) There should be for the house father and mother a good sitting and sleeping-room, with toilet and bath, also one sleeping-room for a teacher, with bath, in each of the cottages. The teacher's interest in the boys is of a nature to make her generally an acceptable and desirable member of the cottage household.

(e) There should be a convenient kitchen with pantry or store-room, and a pleasant dining room in which boys, the house father and house mother and the teacher dine together.

(f) The principal bath and toilet for boys should be on the dormitory floor. It is not likely to be offensive and is convenient. In the basement should be toilet and wardrobe accommodations for boys coming in from work, but these need not be extensive;

lockers for work clothes, one or two water-closets, a urinal, and some hand basins.

(g) There should be a workshop in the basement, where boys inclined to use tools may exercise their ingenuity in helpful and, to them, interesting ways. The cultivation of the constructive faculty which such a room and a few tools will afford is quite worth while. A playroom in the basement for inclement weather is deemed desirable by some, but is not essential and is not recommended by the Commission, as out-of-doors is far better in almost all weathers.

As we favor the cottage dining room and kitchen, concerning which there was considerable diversity of opinion, we feel bound to state briefly the pros and cons of the general kitchen and of the cottage kitchen. A general kitchen has been adopted by many institutions, claiming to be organized upon the cottage plan, for alleged reasons of a uniform diet, economy of fuel, of material, of labor and on account of greater skill in one well paid, thoroughly trained chef than in many cottage cooks. The handicap is the difficulty of distributing the food in a hot and appetizing condition, especially when the separation of the cottages is considerable. Many of the advocates of the general kitchen meet this difficulty by a congregate dining room, some mitigating this anachronism by separating alcoves, or small dining rooms, for each cottage group at the central dining-hall. To us the nullification of the cottage segregation by this reversion to the congregate method of dealing with the boys outweighs any alleged economies, and the supposed advantage of uniformity of diet, which amounts in practice to an undesirable sameness and sometimes to an almost intolerable monotony. The experience of the State Agricultural and Industrial School at Industry is that the food is in greater variety; is better cooked to suit individual tastes, and that the cottage mother is able to carry on the cottage kitchen with the help of boys and without recourse to another officer. The cottage kitchen can often effect small economies in the use of food products, which the general kitchen, requiring a large amount of everything, cannot secure. We are not convinced that the large kitchen is really economical. In this way, too, by the cottage dining room and kitchen the boys are given a useful training, and above all the home feeling is conserved. We recommend the trial of the cottage kitchen in the New

York State Training School for Boys. If it is not judged a success after due trial a general kitchen can be built. The cottage kitchen should be helped out by a good general bakery, where the bread and all other kinds of bake stuff can be procured.

MATERIAL AND COST OF COTTAGES.

Q. 11. What shall be the material used in the construction of the individual cottage? What will be the cost of the individual cottage?

As to the material of which to build, seven of the ten consultants advise brick or a combination of brick and stone, or of stone and concrete, most of them standing for fireproof or slow-burning construction. Aside from the lessened fire risk the arguments were, greater permanence, less repairs, and warmer buildings. One named a combination of wood and stone; first story stone, second wood, with slate roof. One favored stone foundation with brick veneer and stucco on wood frame, and one was for stone or brick foundation and entire superstructure of wood, arguing that what was good enough for the majority of the unconvicted was good enough for the convicted.

The Commission thinks that the question of building of field stone and concrete is worth considering. The stone is abundant and of good building quality. Portland cement is remarkably cheap, and walls of buildings may be erected of the two, which will cost somewhat more perhaps than first-class wooden construction, but will be considerably less in cost than brick. The cost of concrete floors and partitions, thus making a fireproof and well nigh indestructible building, is by no means so much more costly than wood as to be prohibitive. The Commission does not favor an expensive type of cottage for the purpose either of a pleasing external effect, or of providing for the boys' conditions of living greatly superior to those to which they will go upon parole. Simplicity, the promotion of home feeling, and real economy should be the determining factors.

HEATING.

Q. 12. If some or all of the cottages are to be rather widely scattered, how shall they be heated?

The contour of the land and the wide separation plan for the

cottages demand individual plants. Hot water or steam, all things considered, would seem the simplest and easiest to manage; also best adapted to the wide range of temperature it will be called upon to mitigate. A few nearby buildings can probably be connected with the steam of the power plant to advantage and with economy.

EMPLOYMENT OF THE BOYS.

Q. 13. To what extent is it practicable to use the boys in:

- (a) The improvements of the grounds;
- (b) Excavation or similar work in preparation for buildings;
- (c) Construction of buildings;
- (d) Decoration, or the equipment and furnishing of buildings?

The following are the conclusions of consultants and of the Commission:

(a) Given time enough, boys' labor can be used in making all the improvements of the grounds.

(b) When there is a sufficient number, the boys' labor will be valuable in excavation and all similar work.

(c) Regarding the use of boy labor in construction of buildings, one wisely says, "Buildings may be built by the boys, but they should only be undertaken ~~when~~ they can be done in as truly an educational way as when instruction is given in a shop. Time contracts and contracts to be executed by men doing the skilled work and boys only the rough labor are exceedingly objectionable in an educational institution."

(d) "If the buildings are left as from the builders until the classes in the various trades are established, and only the simplest necessary furniture is supplied when the buildings are occupied, the buildings may be made as beautiful as desired, and furnished as well as can be wished, by the trade classes. But haste and factory methods must be avoided if the educational idea is not to be sacrificed. More harm or good may be done in the lines above indicated than in any other way in a school which claims its whole life is one harmonious educational effort."

It seems clear to the Commission that until the school is well under way, and training has been given to some purpose, little

can be expected under headings (c) and (d) from boy labor, while ample scope for all available boy force will be found in what is indicated under headings (a) and (b).

HARMONIOUS RELATIONS WITH NEIGHBORS.

Q. 14. What steps (if any) shall be taken at this time, or before, or at the time of the actual opening of the institution, to insure harmonious relations with neighbors or with the village authorities of Yorktown Heights?

The Commission concurs in the generally expressed opinion of the consultants that no steps will be necessary to gain the good-will of neighbors. It will come of itself with patience and courtesy. Time will show them that the institution is not a detriment to the community, and its advantages will be, in due time, appreciated and acknowledged. This has proven to be the case at the State Agricultural and Industrial School.

NO TRANSFERS FROM HOUSE OF REFUGE.

Q. 15. Shall any boys be transferred from the present House of Refuge to the new institution, or shall only new commitments be received at the new institution?

There was no dissent among the consultants in regard to this question. All urged that only new commitments be sent to Yorktown Heights. A sentence from one of the consultants' replies condenses the expressed sentiment of all on this point: "Traditions are nowhere more tenacious or harmful than in an institution of the kind being considered. The new school must be so absolutely different in ideas, methods and conduct from the old that it will be a sad necessity which grafts anything from the old on to the new." It seems to the Commission that, in founding a new school, it is of the utmost moment that it start under such conditions that its head may develop plans and devise methods to meet needs and exigencies as they arise. In other words, a gradual development is essential to a healthy growth. Hence, no inmates from the House of Refuge should be transferred to Yorktown. To build and equip the plant, using Randall's Island as a receiving place until the new place is ready to care for a considerable population, then transferring it to the new school, would be to invite disaster. The unvarying testimony of experience is against transferring inmates

from a congregate to an open school. Not only is discipline made more difficult, but traditions and vices, watchwords and signs, born of prison discipline, are transferred with the inmates, and like vermin live and flourish and are difficult to exterminate. These traditions will be handed down and perpetuated, to the disadvantage of hundreds who will in future years be newly committed. It will be well to open the new school as soon as the accommodations for three months' commitments, *i. e.*, about eighty boys, have been constructed. It is a good thing for the boys to take part in the building of the institution. If the new school finds it cannot care for the boys as fast as committed, some provision should be made by law whereby the managers have authority to decline to receive until the construction of the cottages has caught up with the demands of the commitment rate. This amount of elasticity in the relation of the school to the courts of commitment during the time of organization and development would seem absolutely necessary to the high success which the Site Commission hopes may be achieved in this attempt to educate for efficient citizenship the delinquent boys of New York City and the adjacent counties. The Commission thinks that no boy should be paroled from the House of Refuge in such a way that he may find his way to the new institution. The experience of the State Agricultural and Industrial School in this regard ought to be a sufficient caution.

CHRONOLOGY OF CONSTRUCTION.

The Commission suggests that building operations be taken upon the following order:

First put the Tokulsky dwelling in shape to be used as a superintendent's house and administration building until such time as a suitable administration building and a superintendent's cottage can be built. The erection of the administration building may be deferred until the second year. The first contracts should be for twenty cottages, ten cottage farm barns, the general utility buildings, the water filtration plant, and the sewage disposal plant in part. The order of completion should be, the two receiving cottages, two of the so-called group cottages, and two of the farm cottages. The general utility buildings should be completed at

the time these six cottages are completed. Two cottage farm barns should also be completed at the same time, by erecting new, or moving and repairing some of the old, farm barns on the property. When this is done, it might be possible to begin receiving boys from the courts, provided there were sufficient assurance that the whole twenty cottages would be completed and ready for use, seven within three months after the completion of the first six, and the balance at the end of three months more. To keep pace with the rate of commitments for 1907 and 1908, fifty cottages will be needed within about two years from the time of receiving the first commitment. The schoolhouse, the administration building and the structure for industrial shops should be ready for use within a year after the arrival of the first commitment.

The Commission is of the opinion that the construction of cottages should be begun as soon as possible and pushed forward with all vigor. The continued use of the old and obsolete buildings at Randall's Island is exceedingly objectionable and ought to be abandoned at the earliest moment feasible.

ESTIMATED COST OF NEW YORK TRAINING SCHOOL FOR BOYS.

In accordance with the provisions of chapter 268 of the Laws of 1908, which require that the Commission "shall cause to be prepared by the State Architect preliminary plans and specifications of such buildings and improvements and the estimated cost thereof," the State Architect, Franklin B. Ware, has submitted the following estimates:

"A close approximate estimate of the cost of the proposed buildings, power-house, water supply and sewerage disposal works, is as follows:

50 Dormitory cottages at \$11,000.....	\$550,000
1 Administration building	35,000
5 Industrial, manual training, trade and other school buildings.....	150,000
1 Drill hall, gymnasium and auditorium building..	60,000
Chapels	24,000
1 Superintendent's residence	12,000
1 General hospital.....	25,000

1 Contagious disease hospital	\$2,500
1 Power-house, coal pockets and stack.....	30,000
Steam conduits and piping to Industrial group...	30,000
Boilers, pumps and piping in power-house.....	15,000
Engine and generators, electric cables, feeders, pole lines and transformers.....	24,000
Heating plant in Administration group, including conduits and piping to buildings.....	34,000
Water supply system, including filters and water tower.....	52,000
Reclamation sewerage disposal plant.....	12,000
Trunk sewers	18,000
1 Laundry building	14,000
2 Firehouses	4,000
1 Icehouse	4,000
8 Dairy barns	24,000
8 General barns	12,000
2 Teamsters' stables	6,000
1 Dairy building	2,500
7 Fruit and vegetable storage buildings.....	8,400
Greenhouses	8,000
22 Poultry-houses	3,300
7 Piggeries	5,950
6 Tool sheds	1,500
Stone breaking crib.....	1,000
Roads, walks and grading.....	20,000
Repairs and alterations to present buildings.....	4,000
\$1,192,150	

The largest item of the above list, \$550,000, is for the complete housing of 800 boys and their caretakers and teachers. Allowing the usual percentage of employees found necessary to carry on such an institution, namely: One employee to five inmates, the per capita cost for housing alone is a trifle less than \$572. The balance of the building cost pertains almost wholly to what may be called educational, industrial and vocational training, it being the opinion of the Commission that every activity of the institu-

tion should be turned to an educational account. When it is remembered that, of the yearly crop of delinquents which the police gather in, all the more hopeful of the convictions will be sent to such institutions as the Catholic and Jewish Protectories and the New York Juvenile Asylum, to say nothing of some that may go to orphan asylums, it is quite apparent that the more than 300 annual commitments will be difficult cases and that, if the State is to be successful through the agency of this institution in reducing the ranks from which the most dangerous, daring and costly criminals are recruited, it must not be niggardly in supplying the best facilities for combating and overcoming the downward tendencies of these boys, due to their previous untoward environments. It should be borne in mind that the majority of them, through right methods of training, may be aroused to proper ambitions and aspirations, which subsequently will insure their becoming citizens useful to society and the State.

THE ESTIMATED COST OF OPERATING THE NEW YORK STATE TRAINING SCHOOL FOR BOYS.

While chapter 268 of the Laws of 1908 does not lay upon the Commission the duty to forecast the cost of operating the new institution, it was necessary that the cost of operation be taken into account in advising as to the number and character of buildings to be erected. A brief synopsis of our findings may be interesting and helpful in considering the financial aspect of the new institution.

SALARIES.

A salary list was made up very carefully, containing all the officers and employees deemed necessary to man an institution for 800 boys, divided into groups of sixteen for all purposes. In the list was included a force of parole agents adequate to care for a paroled population of 2,000. The estimated salary cost took account of the maximum and minimum rates of salaries and wages in the classified list of the Civil Service Commission, also as shown in the actual expenditures of similar institutions. The per capita for salaries thus estimated did not quite reach \$120 per annum.

COST OF MAINTENANCE.

The ordinary expenditures other than salaries for the years 1906, 1907 and 1908 average \$131.18 per pupil at the House of Refuge on Randall's Island. This congregate school, without a farm on which to grow food supplies, is obliged to spend for the purchase of supplies 10½ per cent. more of its entire appropriation for ordinary expenditures than the State Agricultural and Industrial School, an open cottage school with a large land area upon which are raised these food products. In other words, the Agricultural School with its large number of individual farms and widely separated buildings is able to show a saving of 11.7 per cent. in food supplies and 3.5 per cent. in household stores, clothing, fuel and light, medical and hospital supplies taken together, or a total of 15.2 per cent., while over against this the House of Refuge shows in regard to shop, farm and garden supplies, ordinary repairs and unclassified expenses a *per contra* saving of 4.8 per cent., leaving the State Agricultural and Industrial School still 10.4 per cent. in the lead. We believe a like favorable showing can be made by the Boys School at Yorktown Heights; that is, the per capita cost for food and other supplies can be cut down from \$131 to \$118, thus making a total estimated per capita for all ordinary expenses for the new school of \$238. If to this sum be added the estimated cost for traveling and all other expenses of the parole agents' force, the total is a per capita cost of \$248. The average per capita cost of the three similar institutions, the State Agricultural and Industrial School, the House of Refuge and the New York State Training School for Girls, is \$258.

RAILROAD SPUR FROM YORKTOWN HEIGHTS TO THE SITE.

It would be a matter of convenience and of economy if freight could be landed upon the site without breaking bulk. The physical conditions for the construction of a railroad spur from the New York Central railroad tracks at Yorktown Heights to the nearest point on the site at the lake level are good. The distance is only about one and three-fourths miles by the shortest line, with comparatively little variation in gradients. The Commission recommends that this improvement be made if equitable terms can be effected with the New York Central railroad.

THE PAROLED BOY.

The Commission has outlined carefully and thoroughly to the best of its ability the kind of equipment which in its judgment is requisite to effect a proper training of delinquent boys, so far as institutional training is concerned. It feels that the plans suggested and implied are incomplete without some fuller reference to the care of the paroled boy. In his letter of kindly criticism sent to the Commission by the State Commissioner of Education, after reading the manuscript copy of the educational portion of this report, Dr. Draper says: "The worth of the institution to the State will not only depend upon the scheme and plan, but quite as much upon its accomplishing very completely what it undertakes to do." No word could have been written which applies more fully or more aptly than this to the care which must be given to the paroled boy, if the institution is to justify its existence. To waken in the boy, and warm into more or less vigorous growth, wholesome ambitions and aspirations, and then turn him loose in the adverse atmosphere of the average community, expecting that he will maintain unaided a brave, hopeful and unwavering front toward the moral issues of life betokens a faith in fortuitous circumstances not born of experience or judgment. The need of this subsequent care and oversight has not heretofore had the recognition which it deserves. It is a work requiring great tact and skill if it is to be fruitful of good results. It has a twofold object; primarily, to insure the successful culmination of the work begun in the institution; in the second place to furnish adequate and reliable information to the managers of the school, its superintendent, and to the taxpayers of the State, who should know whether their money has been expended profitably or otherwise. The Commission believes that so important a function of the institution as the care of its paroled boys should be recognized in the act to provide for the management of the New York State Training School for Boys, and recommends that such a clause be inserted. We also have included in estimated costs what is believed to be an adequate sum to cover the salaries and expenses of agents for the work, on the presumption that when the school is in full operation there may be 2,000 boys on parole and subject to visitation. The cost for agents to do this work has been in-

cluded in the estimated per capita for the institution with 800 pupils. This would bring the total estimated per capita cost for a school of 800 pupils up to \$248.61, of which \$20.50 per capita are for salaries, traveling expenses, telephone and all office expenses for the care of paroled boys.

The Chairman of the Commission submitted this report in manuscript to the State Commissioner of Education, Hon. Andrew S. Draper, for his opinion and criticism upon its educational features. From his letter, we quote as follows:

"I have gone over the paper with continually increasing interest. I have read every word of it with much satisfaction at the evidence which it gives of the intelligent and assiduous work of the Commission. I really find nothing in it to criticise. I am not at all experienced about providing for the care and training of a large number of incorrigible boys, but of course I have given a good deal of attention to the training of boys for efficiency and citizenship, and I suppose incorrigible boys have very much in common with all other boys.

"It looks to me as though your scheme for the institution, its management and its activities is all right. You are clearly right in giving so much scope to the agricultural industries, and I think you would have made a great mistake if you had not undertaken to make ample provision for the mechanical industries. I am glad that you came to the conclusion to carry on the work in the ordinary English branches in a central school, and to confine the work of this school to the elementary subjects. I would keep these boys largely occupied with physical work. Of course, the books are not to be altogether neglected, but they should be made subordinate. The time in the schoolroom should not be so extended as to be wearisome. If I were to offer a word of suggestion, it would be upon two points; namely, *first*, that the buildings which are to be used for shops be made to look like shops and be given the atmosphere of shops, carrying this thought into all of the construction; and, *second*, that teachers be employed on the ground that they have moral character and like boys, and then on the ground that they can do special things with considerable expertness. A boy has admiration for a man who can do something specially well, and he does not care a whoop about the man's philosophy or about what is called 'general culture.'

"I see no provision in your scheme for play, but I assume that that will not be lost sight of. The State can well afford to provide the facilities for a proper amount of wholesome sport, and the institution will be sadly at fault without it.

"Perhaps it may well be added that the time of each inmate of this institution should be sufficiently long, and the work which he is to do should be so extended and systematized, as to assure very definite results. The worth of the institution to the State will not only depend upon the scheme and plan, but quite as much upon its accomplishing very completely what it undertakes to do.

In a word, I am delighted with your plans."

BILL FOR THE APPOINTMENT OF MANAGERS AND OTHER GENERAL PURPOSES.

In accordance with the requirement of the act authorizing the appointment of the Commission, a draft of a bill covering the general work of the New York State Training School for Boys has been prepared for consideration by the Legislature, and is appended to this report.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

DENNIS McCARTHY,
HOMER FOLKS,
NEWBOLD MORRIS,
Commissioners.

APPENDIX A

REPORT OF THE STATE DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH UPON THE
WATER SUPPLY AND RULES ESTABLISHED BY THE STATE
DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH FOR THE PROTECTION OF THE
WATER SUPPLY.

APPENDIX A

NEW YORK STATE DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH.

ALBANY, October 30, 1908.

HON. DENNIS MCCARTHY, *Commissioner State Board of Charities,*
Syracuse, N. Y.:

DEAR MR. MCCARTHY.— I enclose you herewith the reports of the laboratory upon the examination of the waters of Lake Mohansic.

After you have read these reports if there is anything further that the Department can do in the matter I assure you that we will be very glad to be of service to you.

Mr. Wachter suggested that you might like to have rules adopted by the Department for the protection of this water supply. I understand from him that there are apparently some legal difficulties in the matter, but we will, of course, be glad to do anything that we can in the way of making water rules that would help protect this supply from possible contamination.

Very truly yours,

A. H. SEYMOUR,

Secretary.

NEW YORK STATE DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH.

ALBANY, October 30, 1908.

DR. EUGENE H. PORTER, *State Commissioner of Health, Albany,*
N. Y.:

DEAR SIR.— Am transmitting you enclosed the report of Mr. Leonard M. Wachter, Sanitary Chemist, upon the water available at the Lake Mohansic site, which he visited October 14th at the request of Hon. Dennis McCarthy, Chairman of the State Board of Charities.

I enclose also the results of analysis of samples of water which he took at that time.

The analytical results show the water of Mohansic lake to be but moderately hard and entirely satisfactory for boiler and laundry purposes.

The albuminoid ammonia and oxygen consumed values are high, but as there was a strong growth of algae the high values were probably caused by living vegetable matter.

The chlorine value was normal for this territory and shows that pollution from animal and human sources is very limited.

The bacteriological analyses also show satisfactory quality.

All the facts that Mr. Wachter was able to obtain would tend to show that the lake is probably seeded with algae growths each warm season. Some of these growths do not affect the quality of water in a way to become a problem, while others produce distinctive tastes and odors and grow so abundantly as to make the water unpleasant, and at times disagreeable or even worse. They are not usually considered dangerous to health.

In considering Lake Mohansic as a source of drinking water, it will probably be necessary to consider filtering the water to remove these algae growths. Though it was late in the season for algae growths, the water contained anabaena, an organism which has frequently rendered water unfit for use because of the disagreeable odor.

It is, of course, desirable to obtain all titles and rights that will aid in maintaining good sanitary conditions on the watershed.

As to the sanitary quality of water, as shown by the analyses from the minor sources, not much weight can be given them.

The small streams were accessible to the cattle and the inspection showed that they had been walking about. This would account for any bacterial pollution and no other source exists.

None of the waters are very hard. On the contrary they are quite soft for spring water, particularly at such a dry time of the year.

Disturbances by frogs and snakes affected some of the springs and these samples cannot be considered typical. The sanitary survey shows that there are no conditions that would make the water from these springs unsafe if the strictly local surroundings are properly cared for.

Yours very truly,

H. D. PEASE,

Director State Hygienic Laboratory.

NEW YORK STATE DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH.

ALBANY, *October 29, 1908.*

Dr. H. D. PEASE, *Director State Hygienic Laboratory, Albany, N. Y.:*

DEAR SIR.—The following is my report upon Lake Mohansic and the available sources of water located upon the property contemplated to be used for an institution by the State Board of Charities.

Owing to the small amount of rainfall during the past season, some of the conditions are abnormal and it is not best to draw too definite conclusions from analyses made upon samples taken at this time. More weight can be placed upon the sanitary survey.

With the exception of the so-called bungalow spring on the Tekulsky place and small springs on the Perry farm, most of the springs showed the effect of the drought, either by diminished flow or by being actually dry.

The basin at the outlet of the bungalow spring contained numerous frogs, and I saw them remove a snake about thirty inches long from the same. The disturbances caused by the jumping in and out of these creatures naturally made the water roily, and it was necessary to bail it out before taking the samples.

No weight should be given to the bacteriological findings on this sample.

The analysis showed the water to be very soft.

The small stream which crosses the highway and enters the lake near the northwest corner was but a rivulet at the time the sample was taken. An inspection of the ground it drained showed that there was a small swamp area, and there were marks showing that cattle drank at points. All conditions combined to make the sample taken represent bad conditions. There is no pollution except from cattle, and any bacterial pollution found is from this source.

Swamp areas are not desirable on a watershed as they tend to add color to the water and are frequently the source from which micro-organisms start, which later reach the lake or reservoir. The stream, however, is comparatively small and furnishes but a relatively small part of the water which reaches the lake. This water

was almost twice as hard as the sample taken of the lake water and would be considered a moderately hard water. The hardness is now a maximum because of the drought.

I learned by conversation that the lake level at the present time is at least two feet lower than it has been for thirty years and that aside from the drought that existed there was an intentional lowering of the lake level. At times the highway along the south-westerly shore of the lake had been flooded in the past, and to prevent this the town authorities lowered the outlet of the pond which drains Mohansic lake.

These statements could easily be verified by the town authorities.

At the northwest end of the lake are several small shanties, owned by one man who lives there and rents these shacks or cabins to parties during the summer. He also has boats to rent, and I was informed that there was considerable boating, fishing and bathing during the warm months. These practices do not improve the character of the lake water for drinking purposes, as the sanitation carried on by these visitors is not always of the desirable kind and there is danger of pollution.

It is a question whether the riparian rights of landowners bordering on the lake gives them the right to all these uses of the lake.

Another point brought up in conversation was "who actually owned the lake." As it was claimed that all deeds mentioned the lake as a boundary line, it would seem that this was a point well worth investigating.

As Mohansic lake drains into the Croton watershed, the rights of New York City as a riparian owner must be considered. The Croton watershed is protected by water rules formulated by the State Department of Health and due consideration must be given to the sewage disposal from any institution that might be built so that it will not pollute the Croton water supply.

The sanitary quality of the lake is satisfactory. The water is moderately hard, most of this hardness being temporary hardness or that produced by carbonates and bicarbonates. The water is entirely satisfactory for boiler and laundry purposes, and the sample was taken at a time when the hardness was as high as it will probably be under ordinary conditions because of the exceptional drought.

The chlorine is normal for this region, and this is a good index of the amount of animal pollution. Any appreciable amount of animal pollution would raise the chlorine value above the normal.

The albuminoid ammonia and oxygen consumed values are high. This is mostly of vegetable origin, being from micro-organic growths in the water. These growths cause the scum seen on the surface of the lake. These algae growths are the undesirable features about the lake as a source of water supply.

I took pains to inquire if growths appeared on the surface of the lake each year and was informed that they usually did, though not always at the same time of the year. These are the observations of laymen and are what I would expect, as different species of algae have their maximum development at different times of the year. It is strongly probable that different growths exist in the lake during different years or even at different times during the same year.

I made inquiries of Dr. Daniel D. Jackson, Director of Laboratories for the New York City Department of Water Supply, Gas and Electricity, and he stated that their inspections had usually shown strong algae growths during the summer months. As they had not examined the lake water, he kindly had a sample taken and sent us a report.

When asking for information, I thought that his department might have records on file that might give us a knowledge of the algae growths in the lake in past years.

There is sufficient evidence to warrant the conclusion that algae growths are quite prevalent in the lake water during the warm months of the year.

The amount of water available on the property from any source other than the lake is too small to be considered as a source of supply for any considerable number of people.

The only spring that I saw that gave any considerable amount of water was the Tekulsky spring on the bungalow place.

Many springs were entirely dry and others showed very markedly the effect of the drought.

Yours respectfully,

LEONARD M. WACHTER,

Sanitary Chemist.

[New York State Department of Health, Albany, N. Y.]

SANITARY ANALYSIS OF WATER.

(Results are parts in 1,000,000.)

No. B-1572 and C-779.

October 29, 1908.

From Town of Yorktown, County of Westchester.

Collection of sample authorized by State Board of Charities.

Collected and sealed by L. M. Wachter.

Collected on October 17, 1908, 4 p. m.

Collected from Lake Mohansic, Yorktown Heights.

Color, 8.

Odor, hot, 4. Musty.

Odor, cold, 3. Musty.

Turbidity, 5.

Solids, total, 68.

Loss on ignition, 35.

Mineral residue, 33.

Nitrogen as:

Ammonia free, .052.

Ammonia albuminoid, total, .332.

Nitrites, .002.

Nitrates, 0.04.

Oxygen consumed, 6.25.

Chlorine, 1.62.

Hardness, total, 32.5.

Alkalinity, 20.

Bacteria per c.c.m., 250.

B. Coli Communis, type present.

Remarks.—The water shows a very moderate amount of hardness, and this too at a time when the water is extremely low.

The chlorine is normal for this region, and indicates the absence of any considerable amount of animal pollution.

The albuminoid ammonia and oxygen consumed values are high, but as there was a strong algæ growth this was probably from living vegetable matter.

The bacterial count is moderate and though bacilli of the B. coli type were not entirely absent they were not present in quantities sufficient to indicate marked pollution.

H. D. PEASE,

Director State Hygienic Laboratory.

No. B-1573 and C-781.

October 29, 1908.

From Town of Yorktown, County of Westchester.

Collection of sample authorized by H. D. Pease, M. D.

Collected and sealed by L. M. Wachter.

Collected on October 17, 1908, 2:50 p. m.

Collected from stream entering Lake Mohansic.

Color, 15.

Odor, hot, 2. Musty.

Odor, cold, 1. Musty.

Turbidity, 1.

Solids, total, 143.

Loss on ignition, 61.

Mineral residue, 82.

Nitrogen as:

Ammonia free, .024.

Ammonia albuminoid, total, .080.

Nitrites, .002.

Nitrates, trace.

Oxygen consumed, 3.80.

Chlorine, 1.62.

Hardness, total, 60.7.

Alkalinity, 59.5.

Bacteria per c.cm., 10,500.

B. Coli Communis, type present.

Remarks.—This water is about twice as hard as the lake sample. This undoubtedly was caused by the drought, while the lake being a large body of water stores snow water and direct run off rain water which makes the average much softer.

The analysis shows some pollution but the stream was very low and cattle have access to it. There is no other source of pollution.

This stream drains a small swamp area.

H. D. PEASE,

Director State Hygienic Laboratory.

No. B-1571.

October 29, 1908.

From Town of Yorktown, County of Westchester.

Collection of sample authorized by H. D. Pease, M. D.

Collected and sealed by L. M. Wachter.

Collected on October 17, 1908, 10:30 a. m.

Collected from stream east of Tekulsky farm.

Bacteria per c.cm., 13,500.

B. Coli Communis, type present.

Remarks.—The bacterial count is high and bacilli of the B. coli type were present in 1/10 cubic centimeter inoculations.

The analysis indicates considerable pollution.

The stream was exceedingly low and there was evidence that the cattle waded into it and this would account for the pollution.

This stream does not enter Lake Mohansic.

H. D. PEASE,

Director State Hygienic Laboratory.

No. B-1574.

October 29, 1908.

From Town of Yorktown, County of Westchester.
Collection of sample authorized by H. D. Pease, M. D.
Collected and sealed by L. M. Wachter.
Collected on October 17, 1908, 11:30 a. m.
Collected from spring, Perry farm.
Bacteria per c.cm., 750.

B. Coli Communis, type present.

Remarks.—The bacterial count is moderate.

Bacilli of the B. coli type were present.

The analysis shows some pollution, but as the spring is located in a barnyard there is a reason. There is no other source of pollution and the surroundings can easily be improved.

H. D. PEASE,

Director State Hygienic Laboratory.

No. B-1575 and C-780.

October 29, 1908.

From Town of Yorktown, County of Westchester.
Collection of sample authorized by H. D. Pease, M. D.
Collected and sealed by L. M. Wachter.
Collected on October 17, 1908, 2:30 p. m.
Collected from spring south of bungalow.
Color, 2.

Odor, hot, 2. Vegetable.

Odor, cold, 1. Vegetable.

Turbidity, 13.

Solids, total, 47.

Loss on ignition, 16.

Mineral residue, 31.

Nitrogen as:

Ammonia free, .014.

Ammonia albuminoid, total, .082.

Nitrites, .002.

Nitrates, 0.80.

Oxygen consumed, 2.65.

Chlorine, 2.00.

Hardness, total, 10.3.

Alkalinity, 4.

Bacteria per c.cm., 30,000.

B. Coli Communis, type present.

Remarks.—The bacterial count is very high, and bacilli of the B. coli type were present.

The spring had been muddy, and just before the sample was taken a large number of frogs and a snake about 30 inches long were taken from the basin and the water bailed out. The conditions were not normal and no weight should be placed on the bacterial analysis.

The chemical analysis shows the water to be very soft and there is no doubt that under normal conditions with the basin clean the water is of good quality.

H. D. PEASE,
Director State Hygienic Laboratory.

No. B-1570.

October 29, 1908.

From Town of Yorktown, County of Westchester.
Collection of sample authorized by State Board of Charities.
Collected and sealed by L. M. Wachter.
Collected on October 17, 1908, 9:30 a. m.
Collected from spring, back of Tekulsky house.
Bacteria per c.cm., 1,000.

B. Coli Communis, type present.

Remarks.—The bacterial count is somewhat high and bacilli of the B. coli type were present, indicating fecal pollution.

The way the water is bailed from the concrete basin would account for any pollution found, as the basin is exposed and open and probably almost any pail is used to bail out the water.

The hardness is about the same as the lake water.

H. D. PEASE,
Director State Hygienic Laboratory.

278 Yates Street, January 7, 1909.

Mr. A. H. SEYMOUR, *State Department of Health, Albany, N. Y.:*

Dear Sir.—Enclosed reports are the results of samples taken at Mohansic Lake, as the Hon. Dennis McCarthy requested us to repeat the analysis later, at the time that we reported in the fall.

Yours very truly,

H. D. PEASE,
Director State Hygienic Laboratory.

No. B-1838 and C-928.

(Lake Mohansic.)

January 5, 1909.

From Town of Yorktown, County of Westchester.
Collection of sample authorized by H. D. Pease, M. D.
Collected and sealed by L. M. Wachter.
Collected on December 30, 1908, 11:30 a. m.
Collected from Lake Mohansic.
Color, 7.
Odor, hot, 2. Vegetable.
Odor, cold, 1. Vegetable.
Turbidity, 3.
Solids, total, 60.

Loss on ignition, 25.

Mineral residue, 35.

Nitrogen as:

Ammonia free, .066.

Ammonia albuminoid, total, .204.

Nitrites, .002.

Nitrates, 0.10.

Oxygen consumed, 5.80.

Chlorine, 2.87.

Hardness, total, 35.1.

Bacteria per c.cm., 32.

B. Coli Communis, type not present.

Remarks.— It would be difficult to find a body of water as large as Lake Mohansic located within 50 miles of New York City and within a reasonable distance of railroad communication, that is subject to fewer possibilities of direct pollution from human sources. The comparatively limited area drained by the lake and its tributaries make it possible to maintain an effective sanitary control of the watershed.

The chemical analysis indicates that there is considerable organic matter present, but this is mostly of vegetable origin, as the bacteriological analysis shows the bacterial count to be low and all tests for organisms of fecal origin gave negative results.

The hardness of the water is moderate.

Vegetable micro-organisms might at times affect the æsthetic quality of the water, but the sanitary quality of the water at the present time is excellent; and this quality can be maintained by enforcing proper sanitary regulations on the watershed in the future and thereby prevent the creating of any conditions which might pollute the water.

H. D. PEASE,

Director State Hygienic Laboratory.

No. B-1329.

(Lake Mohansic.)

January 5, 1909.

From Town of Yorktown, County of Westchester.

Collection of sample authorized by H. D. Pease, M. D.

Collected and sealed by L. M. Wachter.

Collected on December 30, 1908, 12 M.

Collected from well at Tekulsky house.

Bacteria per c.cm., 2,900.

B. Coli Communis, type not present.

Remarks.— The bacterial count is not low, but bacilli of the *B. coli* type were entirely absent.

There was no evidence of fecal pollution in the sample analyzed.

H. D. PEASE,

Director State Hygienic Laboratory.

APPENDIX B

RULES AND REGULATIONS

FOR

**THE PROTECTION FROM CONTAMINATION OF THE PUBLIC WATER
SUPPLY OF THE NEW YORK STATE TRAINING SCHOOL FOR
BOYS IN THE TOWN OF YORKTOWN, WESTCHESTER COUNTY.**

**Enacted by the New York State Commissioner of Health under chapter 45
of the Consolidated Laws.**

NEW YORK STATE DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH.

ALBANY, *April 23, 1909.*

MR. ROBERT W. HILL, *Sec'y Training School Commission,
Capitol, Albany, N. Y.:*

DEAR SIR.—I am enclosing herewith the Rules and Regulations, enacted by me for the protection from contamination of the public water supply for the proposed New York State Training School for Boys in the town of Yorktown, Westchester county, to be derived from Mohansic lake.

I am enclosing an extra copy of the rules for your convenience in causing the same to be published. You will note that section 70 of the Consolidated Public Health Law requires that these rules and regulations to be operative and valid must first be published at least once each week for six consecutive weeks in at least one newspaper in Westchester county.

Kindly furnish me with a copy of the paper in which the rules are published.

Assuring you of the co-operation and assistance of this Department in the future in protecting the water supply for the proposed Training School, I am,

Very respectfully,

EUGENE H. PORTER,

Commissioner of Health.

Abstract from the New York State Public Health Law, providing for the protection from contamination of public water supplies throughout the State. Chapter 45 of the Consolidated Laws.

Section 70. Rules and regulations of department.—The state department of health may make rules and regulations for the protection from contamination of any or all public supplies of potable waters and their sources within the State. If any such rule or regulation relates to a temporary source or act of contamination, any person violating such rule or regulation shall be liable to prosecution for misdemeanor for every such violation, and on conviction shall be punished by a fine not exceeding two hundred dollars, or imprisonment not exceeding one year, or both. If any such rule or regulation relates to a permanent source or act of contamination, said department may impose penalties for the violation thereof or the non-compliance therewith, not exceeding two hundred dollars for every such violation or non-compliance. Every such rule or regulation shall be published at least once in each week for six consecutive weeks, in at least one newspaper of the county where the waters to which it relates are located. The cost of such publication shall be paid by the corporation or municipality benefited by the protection of the water supply, to which the rule or regulation published relates. The affidavit of the printer, publisher or proprietor of the newspaper in which such rule or regulation is published may be filed, with the rule or regulation published, in the county clerk's office of such county, and such affidavit and rule and regulation shall be conclusive evidence of such publication, and of all the facts therein stated in all courts and places.

§ 71. Inspection of water supply.—The officer or board having by law the management and control of the potable water supply of any municipality or the corporation furnishing such supply, may make such inspection of the sources of such water supply, as such officer, board or corporation deems advisable, and to ascertain whether the rules or regulations of the state department are complied with, shall make such regular or special inspections as the state commissioner of health may prescribe. If any such inspection discloses a violation of any such rule or regulation relat-

ing to a permanent source or act of contamination, such officer, board or corporation shall cause a copy of the rule or regulation violated to be served upon the person violating the same, with a notice of such violation. If the person served does not immediately comply with the rule or regulation violated, such officer, board or corporation shall notify the state department of the violation, which shall immediately examine into such violation; and if such person is found by the state department to have actually violated such rule or regulation, the commissioner of health shall order the local board of health of such municipality wherein the violation or the non-compliance occurs to convene and enforce obedience to such rule or regulation. If the local board fails to enforce such order within ten days after its receipt, the corporation furnishing such water supply, or the municipality deriving its water supply from the waters to which such rule or regulation relates, or the state commissioner of health or the local board of health of the municipality wherein the water supply protected by these rules is used, or any person interested in the protection of the purity of the water supply may maintain an action in a court of record, which shall be tried in the county where the cause of action arose against such person, for the recovery of the penalties incurred by such violation, and for an injunction restraining him from the continued violation of such rule or regulation.

§ 73. Sewerage.—When the state department of health shall, for the protection of a water supply from contamination, make orders or regulations the execution of which will require or make necessary the construction and maintenance of any system of sewerage, or a change thereof, in or for any village or hamlet, whether incorporated or unincorporated, or the execution of which will require the providing of some public means of removal or purification of sewage, the municipality or corporation owning the water works benefited thereby shall, at its own expense, construct and maintain such system of sewerage, or change thereof, and provide and maintain such means of removal and purification of sewage and such works or means of sewage disposal as shall be approved by the state department of health. When the execution of any such regulations of the state department of health will occasion or require the removal of any building or buildings, the municipality

or corporation owning the water works benefited thereby shall, at its own expense, remove such buildings and pay to the owner thereof all damages occasioned by such removal. When the execution of any such regulations will injuriously affect any property the municipality or corporation owning the water works benefited thereby shall make just and adequate compensation for the property so taken or injured. Until such construction or change of such system or systems of sewerage, and the providing of such means of removal or purification of sewage, and such works or means of sewage disposal and the removal of any buildings, are so made by the municipality or corporation owning the water works to be benefited thereby at its own expense, and until the municipality or corporation owning the water works benefited shall make just and adequate payment for all injuries to property and for all injuries caused to the legitimate use or operation of such property, there shall be no action or proceeding taken by any such municipality, officer, board, person or corporation against any person or corporation for the violation of any regulation of the state department of health under this article, and no person or corporation shall be considered to have violated or refused to obey any such rule or regulation. The owner of any building the removal of which is occasioned or required, or which has been removed by any rule or regulation of the state department of health made under the provisions of this article, and all persons whose rights of property are injuriously affected by the enforcement of any such rule or regulation, shall have a cause of action against the municipality or corporation owning the water works benefited by the enforcement of such rule or regulation for all damages occasioned or sustained by such removal or enforcement, and an action therefor may be brought against such municipality or corporation in any court of record in the county in which the premises or property affected is situated and shall be tried therein; or such damages may be determined by a special proceeding in the supreme court or the county court of the county in which the property is situated. Such special proceedings shall be commenced by petition and notice to be served by such owner upon the municipality or corporation in the same manner as for the commencement of condemnation proceedings. Such municipality or cor-

poration may make and serve an answer to such petition as in condemnation proceedings. The petition and answer shall set forth the claims of the respective parties, and the provisions of the condemnation law shall be applicable to the subsequent proceedings upon the petition and answer, if any. Either party may, before the service of the petition or answer respectively, offer to take or pay a certain sum, and no costs shall be awarded against either party unless the judgment is more unfavorable to him than his offer.

Concerning the obligation of water corporations or departments to provide for the cost of, or for the making of, changes or improvements demanded by the rules but not specifically mentioned in section 73 of the above law, the State Attorney-General has rendered an opinion from which the following is abstracted:

“In my opinion the proper and only lawful construction which can be placed on section 73 of the public health law is that all damages and injury to the owner of any property affected by changes required to be made to comply with the rules of the Department of Health must be ascertained and paid prior to the taking possession of the property, and is a prerequisite to the enforcement of said rules in all cases except such as are a nuisance in and of themselves, in which cases the Department of Health would have power and authority outside of sections 70, 71 and 73 to abate the same. Any other construction would to my mind render the law unconstitutional. In brief, I am of the opinion that the State Department of Health..... can make and promulgate rules regulating and controlling the use of premises surrounding the sources of water supply in all regards, and that a person violating any of these rules can be punished as provided by the penalties, but before such punishment can be inflicted the corporation for whose benefit the rules are made and established must pay or tender to the owner of the property affected by the enforcement of such rules an amount equal to all damages for making the changes necessary.”

RULES AND REGULATIONS.

The rules and regulations hereinafter given, duly made and enacted in accordance with the provisions of sections 70, 71 and 73 of the Public Health Law heretofore set forth, shall apply to Mohansic Lake, in the town of Yorktown, county of Westchester and to all portions of the drainage area tributary to said lake, and to all streams, lakes, ponds and reservoirs whose waters form or are tributary to said lake and the sources of water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys.

The term "reservoir" whenever used in these rules is intended to mean and refer to any natural or artificial reservoir, lake or pond which stores or detains water that enters or may enter the public water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys. The term "watercourse" wherever used in these rules is intended to mean and refer to any spring, stream, ditch, gutter or other watercourse of any kind, the waters of which when running, whether constantly or occasionally, eventually flow, or may flow, into the public water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys.

Wherever a linear distance of a structure or object from a reservoir or from a watercourse is mentioned in these rules, it is intended to mean the shortest horizontal distance from the nearest point of the structure or object to the high-water mark of a reservoir, or to the edge, margin or precipitous bank forming the ordinary high water mark of such watercourse.

PRIVIES ADJACENT TO ANY RESERVOIR OR WATERCOURSE.

(1) No privy, privy vault, pit, cesspool or any other receptacle of any kind used for either the temporary storage or the permanent deposit of human excreta shall be constructed, placed or maintained with its nearest point within three hundred (300) feet of the high-water mark of any reservoir, or within two hundred and fifty (250) feet of the edge, margin or precipitous bank of any watercourse of the public water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys.

(2) Excreta collected from privies, privy vaults, pits, cesspools or any other receptacles of any kind shall not be placed on the ground or buried in the soil within three hundred (300) feet of

the high-water mark of any reservoir or within two hundred and fifty (250) feet of the edge, margin or precipitous bank of any watercourse of the public water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys.

(3) Whenever it shall be found that owing to the character of the soil or of the surface of the ground, or owing to the height of flow of sub-soil or surface-water, or other special local conditions, the excremental matter from any privy or aforesaid receptacle or from any trench or place of disposal, or the garbage or wastes from any dump, may, in the opinion of the State Commissioner of Health, be washed over the surface or through the soil into any reservoir or watercourse, then the said privy or receptacle for excreta or the said trench or place of disposal or the said garbage or waste dump shall, after due notice to the owner thereof, be removed to such greater distance or to such place as shall be considered safe and proper by the State Commissioner of Health.

SEWAGE, HOUSE SLOPS, SINK WASTE, ETC.

(4) No sewage or excremental matter from any watercloset, privy, or cesspool shall be led, conducted, or discharged by any pipe, drain or ditch into any reservoir or watercourse of the public water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys, nor shall any such matters be placed, led, discharged or allowed to escape onto the surface of the ground or into the ground below the surface within three hundred (300) feet of the high-water mark of any reservoir, or within two hundred and fifty (250) feet of the edge, margin or precipitous bank of any watercourse of the public water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys.

(5) No garbage, putrescible matter, house slops, bath water, kitchen or sink wastes, refuse or waste water from creameries, cheese factories, laundries, nor any polluted water or liquid of any kind shall be thrown or discharged directly or indirectly into any reservoir or watercourse of the public water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys; nor shall any such liquid or solid refuse or waste be thrown or discharged upon the surface of the ground or into the ground below the surface within three hundred (300) feet of the high-water mark of any reservoir, or

within two hundred and fifty (250) feet of the edge, margin or precipitous bank of any watercourse of the public water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys, or in any manner whereby the same may flow into any reservoir or watercourse of the public water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys.

(6) No clothing, bedding, carpets, harness, vehicle, receptacle, utensils or anything that pollutes water shall be washed, rinsed or placed in any reservoir or watercourse of the public water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys.

BATHING, ANIMALS, MANURE, COMPOST, ETC.

(7) No person shall be allowed to bathe in any reservoir or watercourse of the public water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys, nor shall any animals or poultry be allowed to stand, wade or swim in said reservoir or watercourse, nor be washed therein.

(8) No stable for cattle or horses, barnyard, hogyard, pigpen, poultry-house or yard, hitching place or standing place for horses or other animals, manure pile or compost heap shall be located, placed, maintained, or allowed to remain with its nearest point less than three hundred (300) feet of the high-water mark of any reservoir, or within two hundred and fifty (250) feet of the edge, margin or precipitous bank of any watercourse of the public water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys; and none of the above-named objects or sources of pollution shall be so located, placed, maintained, or allowed to remain in any position whereby the drainage, leachings or washings from the same may enter any such reservoir or watercourse without first having passed over or through such an extent of soil as to have been properly purified, and in no case shall it be deemed that proper purification has been secured unless the above drainage, leachings or washings shall have percolated through or flowed over the soil in a scattered, dissipated form, and not concentrated in perceptible lines of drainage, for a distance of not less than three hundred (300) feet from the high-water mark of any reservoir, nor less than two hundred and fifty (250) feet of the edge, margin or precipitous bank of any watercourse of the public water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys.

(9) No human excrement or compost containing human excrement shall be placed, piled or spread upon the ground, or dug or buried in the soil, within a distance of three hundred (300) feet of the high-water mark of any reservoir, or within two hundred and fifty (250) feet of the edge, margin or precipitous bank of any watercourse of the public water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys; and no manure or compost of any kind shall be placed, piled, or spread upon the ground within three hundred (300) feet of the high-water mark of any reservoir, or within two hundred and fifty (250) feet of the edge, margin or precipitous bank of any watercourse of the public water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys.

(10) No decayed or fermented fruit or vegetables, cider mill waste, roots, grain or other vegetable refuse of any kind shall be located, placed, maintained or allowed to remain in such places that the drainage, leachings, or washings therefrom may flow by open, blind or covered drains or channels of any kind into any reservoir or watercourse of the public water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys, without first having passed over or through such an extent of soil as to have been properly purified, and in no case shall it be deemed that sufficient purification has been secured unless the above-mentioned drainage, leachings or washings shall have percolated through or flowed over the soil in a scattered, dissipated form, and not concentrated in perceptible lines of drainage, for a distance of not less than three hundred (300) feet of the high-water mark of any reservoir or two hundred and fifty (250) feet of the edge, margin, or precipitous bank of any watercourse of the public water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys.

DEAD ANIMALS, OFFAL, MANUFACTURING WASTE, ETC.

(11) No dead animals, bird, fish, or any part thereof, or any offal or waste matter of any kind, shall be thrown, placed in, or allowed to pass into any reservoir or watercourse of the public water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys; nor shall any such material or refuse be so located, placed, maintained or allowed to remain in any position whereby the drainage, leachings or washings therefrom may reach any such reservoir

or watercourse without having first percolated through or flowed over the soil in a scattered, dissipated form, and not concentrated in perceptible lines of drainage, for a distance of not less than three hundred (300) feet of the high-water mark of any reservoir, or two hundred and fifty (250) feet of the edge, margin or precipitous bank of any watercourse of the public water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys.

FISHING, BOATING AND ICE CUTTING.

(12) No fish shall be taken from any reservoir, nor shall any person fish in any reservoir or through the ice upon the same, nor trespass upon the waters of any reservoir or the ice thereon, nor maintain or use any boat or boats thereon, except the officials or duly authorized employees of the public water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys in the exercise of their duties in the management and operation of the reservoirs. No person or persons shall cut or remove any ice from any of the reservoirs which form or are tributary to the sources of the public water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys.

(13) No interment of a human body shall be made within three hundred (300) feet of the high-water mark of any reservoir, or two hundred and fifty (250) feet of the edge, margin or precipitous bank of any watercourse of the public water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys.

(14) The Board of Managers or other official body having charge of the New York State Training School for Boys, through its superintendent or other duly authorized official, shall maintain systematic and thorough inspection of the reservoirs, streams and of the entire drainage area tributary thereto, for the purpose of determining whether the above rules are being complied with. At least three such inspections shall be made each year, preferably about the first of the months of March, July and November, and such others as may be directed by the State Commissioner of Health. A notice of violation together with a copy of the rule violated shall be served on all persons who shall be violating the above rules and regulations at the time of the inspection, which shall be conducted in strict accordance with the procedure outlined in section 71 of the Public Health Law, and if the person

served does not immediately comply with the rule or regulation violated, the State Department of Health shall be notified of such violation in a report of inspection which shall be submitted in writing to the State Commissioner of Health within twenty (20) days from the completion of such inspection.

PENALTY.

(15) In accordance with section seventy (70) of chapter 45 of the Consolidated Laws, the penalty for each and every violation of, or non-compliance with, any of these rules and regulations, which relate to a permanent source or action of contamination, is hereby fixed at one hundred (\$100) dollars.

The foregoing rules and regulations for the protection from contamination of the public water supply of the New York State Training School for Boys, Westchester county, N. Y., were duly made, ordained and established on the 22d day of April, 1909, pursuant to chapter 45 of the Consolidated Laws of the State of New York.

EUGENE H. PORTER,
State Commissioner of Health.

Albany, N. Y.

These rules and regulations to be operative and valid must first be published at least once each week for six consecutive weeks in at least one newspaper in Westchester county, N. Y., and the affidavit of the printer, publisher or proprietor of each newspaper in which such publication is made, that the publication was so made, together with a copy of the rules and regulations, must be filed with the county clerk of that county.

The cost of each such publication, affidavit and filing must be paid by the New York State Training School for Boys.

APPENDIX C.

REPORT OF GEORGE T. POWELL UPON THE LANDS PURCHASED AT
YORKTOWN HEIGHTS, WESTCHESTER COUNTY, NEW YORK,
AS A SITE FOR THE NEW YORK STATE TRAINING SCHOOL
FOR BOYS.

REPORT UPON THE EXAMINATION MADE JANUARY 7, 1908, OF THE
LAND PURCHASED AT YORKTOWN, WESTCHESTER COUNTY,
NEW YORK, FOR A STATE TRAINING SCHOOL FOR BOYS.

*To the Commission to Select a Site for the New York State
Training School for Boys:*

THE SOIL.

GENTLEMEN.—I found the tract originally comprised of four farms containing 500 acres of land composed of a drift somewhat variable in character, but mainly of a gravel and sandy loam, with some portions showing a little heavier type, containing a slight admixture of clay; the soil has in it some boulders and stones that are removable, while some of the fields have more or less of projecting rocks.

The land is rolling and characteristic of the general formation of Westchester county, the rocky portions not being excessive, but giving a distinctive value not generally recognized or understood, in the renewal of the soil that is caused by the slow decomposition that is going on where rock exists.

The land best suited to cultivation and for the location of buildings lies mainly and well within the center of the tract, while the hillside pastures and the low land, which also gives the best and most enduring pastures, lie upon the outside, or boundaries, a singularly favorable combination.

The land on the Tekulsky property that lies to the north, sloping toward Mohansic Lake, is especially well adapted to growing grass and put under modern methods of grass culture may be made to produce four tons or more of hay to the acre.

WATER.

The supply of water seems to be ample for the needs of the institution, excellent springs were found in all of the four parcels of land acquired.

On the Winterburn farm is a very strong spring that I was informed had kept up to its full flow through the entire extreme drought of the season of 1908.

The land best suited to pasturage is all well provided with water from living springs.

ADAPTATION TO PRODUCTION.

The soil and climatic conditions are favorable to a wide variety of productions. Hay and grain will be required for the maintenance of teams, and also for a herd of dairy cows. As there will be a certain amount of garbage from the cottages and other buildings to be disposed of daily, it would be desirable to have a number of pigs to which to feed the house table and kitchen refuse which will be fresh and good for this purpose, and thus utilize to advantage a wholesome waste product.

Inexpensive buildings only are required for pigs, as they should have opportunity for free range, where they would live very largely in the open. The location of this range should be isolated and on some of the rough land unsuited to tillage with shade and abundance of water.

There are for this purpose, suitable places on either of the parcels, the Purdy or Winterburn farms.

Corn, being an important and economical food for all kinds of stock, this crop should be grown on a large scale and the soil is particularly well suited for it, while the climatic requirements are of the best. It may be grown practically on all of the tillable land of the four parcels.

Potatoes naturally follow corn in rotation, and with the exception of a few acres of the heavier soil on the Winterburn and Considine or Tekulsky farms may be grown on all of the tillable land. The soil being of a loamy character will produce potatoes of the finest quality and of the highest degree of nutrition that may be obtained. The institution will require a large quantity of this cheap food which may be produced from this land.

Following potatoes, the next in rotation would be oats and wheat, or rye, and clover with other grasses, all of which (excepting oats which are not quite certain in yield) will grow well.

GARDEN PRODUCTIONS.

Garden vegetables should be grown on a large scale and there are several acres on each of the parcels that are well suited to the culture of the small vegetables.

On the Winterburn and Purdy places are a number of fields

containing very excellent soil for gardening. On the Tekulsky property is a swamp of about two acres which, if underdrained, would make excellent land for celery.

ORCHARDS.

There are apple orchards on each parcel, varying from four to six acres, and on the Winterburn place, a very good peach orchard of four or five acres. The trees need pruning and spraying; while the soil should have culture and some fertilizer.

The trees are covered with the San Jose scale, which should be sprayed promptly. They are too valuable to be sacrificed, being capable of furnishing a large quantity of fruit.

The scale does great damage in the winter, often causing the death of the trees. Three men and team, with a force pump to apply Scalecide would spray all of the trees in ten days.

It has taken from fifteen to twenty-five years to grow up these orchards and an expenditure of about \$150 for spraying would save the trees from injury and several from total loss.

THE DAIRY.

The land will maintain over one hundred cows, producing all of the food excepting grain. Silos should be included in the plans for buildings in which to store large quantities of corn for cattle food.

BUILDINGS AND ROADS.

After the buildings and roads are located, the land for the farm and garden culture may be laid out with reference to the greatest economy in its division and use for the purposes desired.

Many of the inside fences should be removed and the stones, as also those in some of the fields, may be utilized in buildings and in roads.

By the removal of the inside fences where cultivation is to be done, larger fields may be laid out which will make possible and more economical, the use of improved machinery.

The present buildings are in quite good condition, and may be made available for temporary use.

The Fellman farm was looked over. The tillable land lies quite

a distance away, and is somewhat inaccessible. There is a low swale and a considerable rather thinly wooded hillside which separates the tillable land quite widely from the tillable land of the acquired site.

In anticipating a growth in numbers of the institution, it would be desirable to add more land and by laying out suitable roads, this farm could be made available.

If the boundaries on the south line could be extended to take in two small places of a few acres each, one of which is nearly surrounded by the present site, carrying the south line out to the highway, it would be quite advantageous. One of these pieces is mostly swamp land, but it could be underdrained and made valuable.

I should judge this to be quite as desirable as to purchase the Tallman farm.

The site is well selected and it is admirably suited to the purpose for which it is desired.

Very respectfully submitted,

(Signed) GEORGE T. POWELL.

APPENDIX D.

**A DRAFT OF AN ACT TO PROVIDE FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF THE
NEW YORK STATE TRAINING SCHOOL FOR BOYS, AND FOR
THE COMMITMENT OF DELINQUENT BOYS THERETO.**

STATE OF NEW YORK

Int.

No.

IN SENATE

January , 1910.

Introduced by Mr. , read twice and ordered printed,
and when printed to be committed to the Committee on

AN ACT

To provide for the management of the New York State Training School for Boys, and for the commitment of delinquent boys thereto.

The People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

Section 1. Establishment and objects of school.—The New York State Training School for Boys, established by chapter seven hundred and eighteen of the laws of nineteen hundred and four, as amended by chapter six hundred and sixty-five of the laws of nineteen hundred and seven, and chapter two hundred and sixty-eight of the laws of nineteen hundred and eight, is hereby continued. The said school shall be located at Yorktown Heights in Westchester county. The objects of the school shall be to receive, educate and train delinquent boys under the age of sixteen years, who are properly committed thereto by courts of competent jurisdiction in the first, second, third and ninth judicial districts of the state. The school shall be subject to the visitation and other general powers of the State Board of Charities and the Fiscal Supervisor of State Charities.

§ 2. Appointment and terms of managers.—The New York State Training School for Boys shall be under the control of a board of seven managers, to be appointed by the Governor by and

with the advice and consent of the senate. All such managers shall be residents of the State of New York. The terms of the managers appointed after the first seven shall be seven years, except that managers appointed to fill vacancies shall hold office for the unexpired terms of the managers whom they succeed. The term of office of one such manager shall expire on the first Tuesday in February in each year, and in the appointment of the first members of the board the Governor shall designate one to serve one year, one to serve two years, one to serve three years, one to serve four years, one to serve five years, one to serve six years, and one to serve seven years. The Governor may remove any manager at any time for cause, after giving such manager an opportunity to be heard. Managers shall receive no compensation for their services, but the actual expenses necessarily incurred by them in the performance of their official duties shall be paid in the same manner as the other expenses of the school.

§ 3. General powers and duties of board of managers.—The board of managers, subject to the provisions of the state charities law, shall:

1. Have the general superintendence, management and control of the school; of the grounds and buildings, officers and employees thereof; of the inmates therein, and of all matters relating to the government, discipline, contracts and fiscal concerns thereof.

2. Make such rules and regulations as may seem to it necessary to secure the accomplishment of the purposes of the school.

3. Maintain an effective inspection of the affairs and management of the school, and meet at least once in every month at the school, and at such other times as may be prescribed in the by-laws.

4. Keep in a book provided for that purpose a fair and full record of its doings, which shall be open at all times to inspection by its members, the Governor, any member or officer of the State Board of Charities, the Fiscal Supervisor, or any person or persons appointed by the Governor or either house of the legislature to examine the same; and forward a copy of the minutes of each meeting of the board to the Governor, the State Board of Charities, and the Fiscal Supervisor.

5. Appoint from among its members a president, a secretary,

and a treasurer. The board shall also appoint a superintendent, a physician, and chaplains, who shall hold office during the pleasure of the board, and shall, subject to the provisions of the state finance law, fix the compensation of the officers and employees of the school.

6. Make to the legislature in January of each year, a detailed report, with suitable suggestions, and such other matter as may be required of it, for the year ending on the thirtieth day of September preceding the date of such report, and also on or before the first day of November, report to the State Board of Charities and to the Fiscal Supervisor, the affairs and conditions of the school for the preceding fiscal year, with full and detailed estimates of the appropriations required during the next fiscal year for maintenance and for ordinary uses and repairs; and of special appropriations, if any, needed for extraordinary repairs, renewals, extensions, improvements, betterments or other necessary objects, and for the erection of additional buildings.

7. Proceed with the construction and equipment of all necessary and suitable buildings, including heating, lighting, plumbing, laundry fixtures, water supply, and sewage disposal plant therefor, as soon as appropriations are made for these purposes by the legislature, but the plans for all such buildings and improvements shall be made by the state architect, and the contracts for the erection of the said buildings and improvements shall be subject to the provisions of section forty-nine of the state charities law as amended by chapter two hundred and fifty-two of the laws of nineteen hundred and two, chapter four hundred and seventy-three of the laws of nineteen hundred and three, and chapter four hundred and fifty-seven of the laws of nineteen hundred and five.

§ 4. General powers and duties of the superintendent.—The superintendent shall be the chief executive officer of the school, and, subject to the by-laws, rules and regulations thereof and the powers of the board of managers, shall:

1. Have control of the internal affairs of the school and maintain discipline therein, and enforce compliance with, and obedience to, all by-laws, rules, regulations and ordinances adopted by the board of managers for the government, discipline and management of the school.

2. Have the general supervision and control of the grounds and buildings of the school, the subordinate officers and employees and the inmates thereof, and all matters relating to their government and discipline.

3. Make such rules and regulations and give such orders, not inconsistent with law or with the rules, regulations or ordinances of the board of managers, as may seem proper or necessary for the government of the school and its officers and employees, and for the employment, discipline and education of the inmates.

4. Appoint the officers, assistants and employees not otherwise provided for, that may be necessary for the economical and efficient management of the school. He shall prescribe their duties, and may discharge any of them at his discretion.

5. Cause full accounts and records of the business and operation of the school to be kept regularly from day to day, in books or on forms provided for that purpose.

6. See that all such accounts and records are properly made up for the annual report to the legislature, as required by this act, and present the same to the board of managers, which shall incorporate them into its report to the legislature.

7. Under the direction of the board of managers, receive and take into the school all boys legally committed thereto by any court having authority to make such commitments and cause to be entered in a register kept for the purpose, at the time of the reception of a boy, his name, age, residence, and such other facts as may be ascertained relating to his parentage, education, mental capacity, physical condition and history, and thereafter from time to time shall add such other information as shall be obtained, so that the register may contain as far as possible a complete history of the boy.

8. Under the direction of the board of managers, cause the boys committed to such school to be so instructed and occupied as shall best secure the objects of the school.

9. Under the direction of the board of managers, parole or discharge any boy at such time as it shall appear to be for the best interests of such boy to be paroled or discharged.

10. Under direction of the board of managers, employ and direct the work of agents whose duty it shall be to investigate the homes to which paroled boys may be released; to obtain full

information concerning the conduct of paroled boys; to give such oversight, aid and counsel as may assist such boys in establishing themselves in the community; and to keep such records thereof as may complete the history of each boy from time of parole until the discharge of such boy by the board of managers, or by the expiration of his sentence.

§ 5. Opening of school.— When the New York State Training School for Boys is ready for the reception of inmates, the board of managers shall so certify in writing to the Secretary of State, and shall notify the courts of competent jurisdiction in the first, second, third and ninth judicial districts of the state, and upon receipt of such notification the said courts shall thereupon cease to commit delinquent boys to the House of Refuge of the Society for the Reformation of Juvenile Delinquents on Randall's Island and may thereafter commit such boys to the New York State Training School for boys. No boys now or hereafter committed to the House of Refuge, of the Society for the Reformation of Juvenile Delinquents on Randall's Island, shall be transferred to the New York State Training School for Boys.

§ 6. Commitment, detention, parole and discharge of boys.— Boys under the age of sixteen years may be committed from the first, second, third and ninth judicial districts of this state as vagrants, or on conviction of any criminal offense or of juvenile delinquency, by any court having authority to make such commitments, to the New York State Training School for Boys; but no boy under the age of twelve years shall be committed or sentenced to the school for any crime or offense less than felony. The courts of criminal jurisdiction in the several counties shall ascertain by such proof as may be in their power, the age of every boy committed to such school, and insert such age in the order of commitment, and the age thus ascertained shall be deemed and taken to be the true age of such boy. If the court shall omit to insert in the order of commitment, the age of any boy committed to such school, the superintendent shall, as soon as may be after such boy shall have been received, ascertain his age by the best means in his power, and cause the same to be entered in a book or on forms to be designated for that purpose, and the age of such boy thus ascertained shall be deemed and taken to be the true age of such boy.

The Board of Managers of the New York State Training School for Boys may, in its discretion, retain in such school any boy committed thereto during the minority of such boy, or may parole or discharge any boy at any time after his commitment when it may seem to such board to be for the best interests of such boy to be so paroled or discharged, and the board may exercise such supervision as may seem to it wise over any boy while on parole, and may at any time while he is on parole cause his return to the school if in its judgment such return shall be for the best interests of such boy.

§ 7. Transfer of inmates to other institutions.— If any boy committed for felony to the New York State Training School for Boys is guilty of attempting to set fire to any building of said school, or of openly resisting the lawful authority of an officer thereof, or of attempting to excite others to do so, or by gross or habitual misconduct exerts a dangerous and pernicious influence over other inmates, the board of managers of the school may submit a written statement of the facts to a justice of the supreme court and apply for an order authorizing a temporary confinement of such boy in the county jail or penitentiary of the county from which such boy was committed, or if the boy be over sixteen years of age, in the Eastern New York State Reformatory, or to the New York State Reformatory at Elmira. Such judge shall forthwith inquire into the facts, and if it appears that the statement is substantially true, and that the ends desired to be accomplished by the school will be best promoted thereby, he shall make an order authorizing the confinement of such boy in such penitentiary, county jail or reformatory, and such penitentiary, county jail or reformatory shall receive such boy and detain him during the time expressed in such order. At the expiration of the time stated in such order, or sooner, if the board of managers of the school shall so direct, the superintendent or keeper of such reformatory, county jail or penitentiary, shall return such boy to the custody of the school.

§ 8. This act shall take effect immediately.

NINTH NEW YORK STATE CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

[181]

PREFACE.

The Ninth New York State Conference of Charities and Correction was held at Elmira, New York, on November 17th, 18th and 19th, 1908. Following the custom of holding the Conference in different cities of the state, one of the smaller cities had been chosen.

The development of the exhibit feature of the Conference resulted in opening the exhibit section on November 16th, and continuing it until the evening of November 20th, thus extending the period from three days to five, during which the Conference was really open. The three floors and basement of the Federation Building at Elmira were filled with exhibits from institutions and organizations throughout the state. In five days an attendance of over 29,000 was reported.

The Conference itself was very successful, and emphasis was laid to even a greater extent than in previous years, upon the preventive sides of charitable and correctional work.

The State Charities Aid Association and the State Board of Health maintained a tuberculosis exhibit, and co-operated with the Conference in several of its sessions, holding a special mass meeting on Friday night, November 20th, which formed a fitting conclusion to what is now becoming known as "Conference Week."

The Tenth New York State Conference will be held at Albany, on November 16th, 17th and 18th, 1909.

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ORGANIZATION OF THE NINTH CONFERENCE.

OFFICERS OF THE CONFERENCE.

PRESIDENT,

SIMON W. ROSENDALE, 57 State Street, Albany.

VICE-PRESIDENTS,

REV. W. J. WHITE, 98 Richards Street, Brooklyn.

DR. EDWARD B. ANGELL, 205 Alexander Street, Rochester.

MRS. CHARLES H. ISRAELS, 179 W. 97th Street, New York.

SECRETARY,

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FRANK TUCKER, 105 E. 22d Street, New York.

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(Continued to conclude its work, and to report in such manner as the Executive Committee may determine.)

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Walter E. Kruesi, Boston.	Mrs. Melvin P. Porter, Buffalo.
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Chairman, Charles D. Hilles, Chauncey.

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Louis P. Groerer, Brooklyn.	John A. Melpolder, Yonkers.
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John F. Conners, Mount Morris.	Porter R. Lee, Buffalo.
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Dr. Ludwig B. Bernstein, New York.	Harvey G. Furbay, New York.

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Rev. Annis Ford Eastman.	Charles E. Rapelyea.
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Mrs. Frederick Collin.	Miss Mary Stark.
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Mrs. Daniel T. Pratt.	Miss Frances Sliter.
Mrs. George L. Curtis.	Miss Vieve L. Diven.
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William F. Dent.	Forest M. Blystone.
Mrs. John I. Willys.	Mrs. William H. Stowell.
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Jervis Langdon.	Fred H. Rees.
Charles H. Gridley.	Edward H. Coburn.
Mrs. Charles H. Root.	Boyd McDowell.
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Mrs. A. P. Morrow.	Robert York.
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Mrs. Michael Del Papa.	E. J. Warner.
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Dr. N. J. Copeland.	Mrs. George Diven.
Major A. M. Hall.	Miss Ella Harris.
John Moore.	Miss Ida Langdon.
Mrs. George Archibald Palmer.	

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George Pickering.
Charles F. Halliday.
Mrs. Harry H. Ford.
Dr. A. W. Booth.
Harry B. Loring.
J. N. Cooper.

Frederick Tomlinson.
Miss Jean Waters.
Frank Swift.
Peter Crise.
Miss Anna B. Pratt.

ENTERTAINMENT COMMITTEE.

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Col. Joseph F. Scott.
Mrs. John M. Connelly.
Capt. James D. S. Reid.
Mrs. Kate D. Andrew.
Mrs. Robert G. Jennings.
Mr. Chester E. Howell.

Mrs. Norman J. Thompson.
Thomas F. Fennell.
Mrs. Henry Rosenbaum.
Dr. H. Adelbert Hamilton.
Mrs. Ed. K. Tidd.
Mrs. Charles H. Gridley.

PROGRAM OF THE CONFERENCE.

PRELIMINARY MEETING.

MONDAY, NOVEMBER 16, 1908.

2:00 P. M. Opening of the Exhibit.

MONDAY, NOVEMBER 16, 1908.

8:00 P. M. Short talks, illustrated and unillustrated, by exhibitors.

TUESDAY, NOVEMBER 17, 1908.

9:30 A. M. Exhibit.

TUESDAY, NOVEMBER 17, 1908.

2:00 P. M. Exhibit.

Registration of members and delegates at Conference Headquarters, Federation building. Afternoon.

4:30 P. M. Afternoon tea, tendered by the local committee. Federation building.

First Session.

TUESDAY, NOVEMBER 17, 1908.

8:00 P. M. Opening of the Conference.

8:05 P. M. Welcome from the city, Mayor Daniel Sheehan.

8:10 P. M. Welcome on behalf of federated clubs and organizations, Hon. Zebulon R. Brockway.

8:15 P. M. President's address, Hon. Simon W. Rosendale.

8:45 P. M. Report of Committee on Public Health, including the Prevention of Consumption. Chairman, Dr. George W. Goler, Medical Officer, Department of Health, Rochester, N. Y.

9:00 P. M. The Influence of Alcohol Upon the Public Health, by Dr. Frederick Peterson, New York City.

9:30 P. M. General discussion.

9:50 P. M. The Prevention of Tuberculosis, by Dr. Livingston Farrand, Executive Secretary of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis.

10:20 P. M. General discussion.

10:40 P. M. Reception, tendered by the Federation of Women's Clubs, Federation building.

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Second Session.

WEDNESDAY, NOVEMBER 18, 1908.

- 9:30 A. M. Business.
- 10:00 A. M. Report of the Committee on the Standard of Living. Chairman, Frederic Almy, Secretary, Charity Organization Society, Buffalo, N. Y.
- 10:20 A. M. Standards of Living in Buffalo, by Mr. John R. Howard, Head Worker at Welcome Hall, Buffalo, N. Y.
- 10:40 A. M. Discussion. Opened by Professor Frank R. Fetter, of Cornell University.
- 10:50 A. M. General discussion.
- 11:10 A. M. Remedies for Too Low a Standard of Living, by Mr. Edward T. Devine, General Secretary of the Charity Organization Society, New York City.
- 11:30 A. M. Discussion. Opened by Dr. Walter Weyl, New York City.
- 11:40 A. M. General discussion.

Third Session.

WEDNESDAY, NOVEMBER 18, 1908.

- 1:30 P. M. Business.
- 2:00 P. M. Report of the Committee on the Care and Relief of the Poor in Their Homes. Chairman, Mr. John J. Fitzgerald, Secretary of the Particular Council of New York City, Society of St. Vincent de Paul.
- 2:20 P. M. Personal Service versus the Spirit of the Times, by Rev. John J. Mullany, of St. John's Rectory, Syracuse, N. Y.
- 2:40 P. M. Discussion. Opened by Francis H. McLean, National Field Secretary for the Extension of Organized Charity, New York City.
- 2:50 P. M. General discussion.
- 3:10 P. M. The Employment of the Handicapped, by Mr. W. Frank Persons, Superintendent of the Charity Organization Society, New York City.
- 3:30 P. M. Discussion. Opened by Dr. Sydney E. Goldstein, Rector of Social Service Work, Free Synagogue, New York City.
- 3:40 P. M. General discussion.
- 4:00 P. M. Visit to Elmira Reformatory to witness dress parade.

Fourth Session.

WEDNESDAY, NOVEMBER 18, 1908.

- 8:00 P. M. Business of the Conference.
- 8:30 P. M. Report of the Committee on the Conditions and Regulations of Labor. Chairman, Mr. P. Tecumseh Sherman, formerly New York State Commissioner of Labor.
- 8:50 P. M. Employers' Liability or Workingmen's Compensation, by Mr. L. W. Hatch, Chief Statistician, New York State Department of Labor.

- 9:10 P. M. Discussion. Opened by Mr. H. A. Jaggard, Superintendent Northern Railroad Company, Elmira, N. Y.
- 9:20 P. M. General discussion.
- 9:40 P. M. Hours of Labor in Relation to Industrial Efficiency, by Miss Pauline Goldmark, Executive Secretary of the Consumers' League, New York City.
- 10:00 P. M. Discussion. Opened by Mr. H. F. Haserot, President of the Haserot Canneries Company, Forestville, N. Y.
- 10:10 P. M. General discussion.

Fifth Session.

THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 19, 1908.

- 9:30 A. M. Exhibit. Open until 11 P. M.
- 10:00 A. M. Business.
- 10:30 A. M. Report of the Committee on the Care of Children. Chairman, Mr. Charles D. Hilles, Superintendent, New York Juvenile Asylum, Dobb's Ferry, N. Y.
- 10:50 A. M. The Effect of Social and Civic Activities in Child-Caring Institutions Upon the Character and Individuality of Children, by Dr. Ludwig B. Bernstein, Superintendent of the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society, New York City.
- 11:10 A. M. Discussion. Opened by Mr. Charles H. Johnson, Superintendent, Albany Orphan Asylum, Albany, N. Y.
- 11:20 A. M. General discussion.
- 11:40 A. M. The Duty of the State to Support Destitute and Neglected Children, by Judge Benjamin J. Shove, Syracuse, N. Y.
- 12:00 M. Discussion. Opened by Professor Frank A. Fetter, of Cornell University.
- 12:10 P. M. General discussion.

Sixth Session.

THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 19, 1908.

- 2:30 P. M. Business.
- 3:00 P. M. Report of the Committee on State Institutions. Mr. James Wood, Chairman, President of Board of Managers, Bedford Reformatory for Women, Bedford, N. Y.
- 3:20 P. M. Divided Management in State Institutions, by Mr. Joseph P. Byers, Superintendent, House of Refuge, Randall's Island, New York City.
- 3:40 P. M. Discussion. Opened by Mr. Homer Folks, Secretary State Charities' Aid Association, New York City.
- 3:50 P. M. General discussion.
- 4:10 P. M. Voluntary Patients in State Hospitals for the Insane, by Dr. Albert Warren Ferris, President State Commission in Lunacy, Albany, N. Y.
- 4:30 P. M. Discussion. Opened by Dr. Richard H. Hutchings.
- 4:40 P. M. General discussion.

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Seventh Session

THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 19, 1908.

- 8:00 P. M. Business.
- 8:30 P. M. Report of the Committee on the Treatment of the Criminal.
Chairman, Dr. Charles F. Howard, President of the State
Commission of Prisons, Albany, N. Y.
- 8:50 P. M. Methods Employed at Elmira and Napanoch in the Reforma-
tion of the Younger Criminal, by Colonel Joseph F. Scott,
Warden, New York State Reformatory, Elmira, N. Y.
- 9:10 P. M. Discussion. Opened by Dr. George A. Lewis, Board of Managers,
New York State Training School for Girls, Hudson, N. Y.
- 9:20 P. M. General discussion.
- 9:40 P. M. Tuberculosis in Penal Institutions, by Dr. J. B. Ransom, Physician
at Clinton Prison, Dannemora, N. Y.
- 10:00 P. M. Discussion. Opened by Dr. J. H. Pryor.
- 10:10 P. M. General discussion.
- 10:30 P. M. Conference closes.

FRIDAY, NOVEMBER 20, 1908.

- 10:00 A. M. Exhibit.
- 10:10 A. M. Visit to Elmira Reformatory.

FRIDAY, NOVEMBER 20, 1908.

- 2:00 P. M. Exhibit.

FRIDAY, NOVEMBER 20, 1908.

- 7:30 P. M. Exhibit. Short talks, illustrated and unillustrated, by Exhibitors.
- 11:00 P. M. Exhibit closes.

NINTH NEW YORK STATE CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION

Held at the Federation Building, Elmira, New York, on November
17, 18 and 19, 1908.

TUESDAY EVENING, NOVEMBER 17, 1908.

HON. SIMON W. ROSENDALE, *President, Chairman.*

PROGRAM.

- 8:00 P. M. Opening of the Conference.
8:05 P. M. Welcome from the city, Mayor Daniel Sheehan.
8:10 P. M. Welcome on behalf of Federated Clubs and organizations,
Hon. Zebulon R. Brockway.
8:15 P. M. President's Address, Hon. Simon W. Rosendale.
8:45 P. M. Report of Committee on Public Health, including the Preven-
tion of Consumption, Chairman, Dr. George W. Goler, medical
officer, Department of Health, Rochester, N. Y.
9:00 P. M. The Influence of Alcohol Upon the Public Health, by Dr. Fred-
erick Peterson, New York city.
9:30 P. M. General discussion.
9:50 P. M. The Prevention of Tuberculosis, by Dr. Livingston Farrand,
executive secretary of the National Association for the Study
and Prevention of Tuberculosis.
10:20 P. M. General discussion.
10:40 P. M. Reception, tendered by the Federation of Women's Club, Federa-
tion Building.

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MINUTES OF THE MEETINGS OF THE NINTH NEW YORK STATE CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION

FIRST SESSION.

TUESDAY EVENING, NOVEMBER 17, 1908, 8 P. M.

THE CHAIRMAN: The hour having arrived, the Conference will please be in order. I have the honor to present his Honor, Mayor Sheehan, of Elmira.

MAYOR DANIEL SHEEHAN: Mr. President, ladies and gentlemen: It is always a pleasant duty to convey the greetings of our citizens to a convention, and I fully appreciate the honor of being here this evening to open the Ninth New York State Conference of Charities and Correction. I am glad to greet you personally, and in an official capacity, and pleased to extend the welcome of our citizens, for a convention of charities is always welcome to every public-spirited and up-to-date city. I want to congratulate you upon this large and representative gathering from all parts of our state, that has come here to help in the good work.

This is the first time you have honored a city of the third class with your convention, and while not as large as the other cities that have had the conference, we are none the less appreciative of the honor conferred. And I assure you that our citizens will do their utmost to impress upon you that in concluding to accept our invitation for this annual meeting you have not made a mistake in coming to Elmira.

Our early history is replete with patriotic deeds on the part of those who won fame during the Revolutionary period; suitable monuments mark and commemorate the signal victories achieved during that time. Our Chamber of Commerce has issued a folder

that will attract your attention and fully inform you regarding the city and its many advantages. From it you will learn that Elmira is located in a section of the state commanding the productive wealth of a most fertile region, and having ample transportation facilities connecting with the large commercial centers. We direct your attention to the many advantages possessed by our city from a commercial and manufacturing standpoint. Our industries are numerous, substantial, varied and prosperous, and our financial institutions are of the best. Our educational system is of a high order, and we take pride in mentioning the Elmira College for Women, which has won a high place in the educational world. Our public buildings are substantial structures and conveniently located. Our business men are up-to-date, enterprising and prosperous. Elmira is well supplied with hospitals and other institutions required for the care of all those who come under the charge of the state, county or city. We have numerous large and beautiful parks, playgrounds, and no city in the state is better equipped in point of delightful pleasure and recreation resorts. We are justly proud of our numerous and handsome churches. This is truly a city of beautiful and comfortable homes, occupied by patriotic, contented and thrifty citizens.

We have always manifested a deep interest in charitable undertakings. Large sums of money have been generously given to endow and maintain many worthy charities, hospitals, homes and institutions. We know that you will be interested in visiting the New York State Reformatory, The Arnot Ogden Memorial Hospital, St. Joseph's Hospital, The Orphan's Home, The Home for the Aged, The Training School for Girls, The Industrial School, The Free Kindergarten, The Visiting Nurses Association, The Department of Public Relief, the city and county buildings and other places of interest. Few cities have so complete or as well regulated a system as the one devised and maintained by Elmira's Federation of Charities.

We take special pride in the success achieved by the Women's Federation. This grand and useful building is an ornament to our city, a splendid home for the many associations now occupying it, and a lasting monument to the generosity of all who have contributed their money, time and counsel. It is indeed an object

lesson of what can be accomplished by united action when exerted along right lines. And we have reason to be justly proud of the women of Elmira who have been instrumental in bringing to completion the plans that for many years anticipated a realization of this praiseworthy undertaking.

This conference is largely composed of those who are foremost and ever active in promoting the good work accomplished by this organization. They give their time, talents and best endeavors to the advancement of plans that accomplish results. We know of no other organization that is more highly appreciated in every community. Your association stimulates and encourages men and women to greater effort for good and the zeal and energy put forth by all is most commendable. Several years ago you planned a line of activity that has since proven to be a grand and noble work. You assumed a certain burden, in part, to care for your fellow beings less fortunate than yourselves and you have done your utmost to uplift those in need of assistance. The people of the state of New York are full of energy and zeal for good deeds, high ideals and everything that tends to make this state what it really is, the Empire State in every sense of the term. Our state should always maintain that position in matters pertaining to the proper care of those who are unable to care for themselves. Your every endeavor is mindful of helping and providing for that which will relieve human suffering and elevate the standard of right living.

The topics to be considered and discussed during your sessions will command the attention of all who will attend. Matters relating to conditions in state, county and municipal institutions will receive proper consideration. Measures will also be discussed to prevent waste in the distribution of charitable funds, and questions of vital importance to the home, school, factory, store and playgrounds, improvement of the standard of living and co-operation with other agencies to strike at the root of disease, poverty and crime, will be gone over. Proper and wise legislation regarding public health, and the improvement of labor conditions will be suggested, and a systematic educational campaign with co-operation as the keynote will be put forward.

The purpose of the Conference and the exhibit are to place

clearly before the people the manner and needs of concerted action upon problems that appeal to all fairminded citizens, to consider ways and means whereby theories may be put into practical effect and to bring together those actively engaged in charitable, civic and correctional work, and to stimulate a greater interest in social work. What most people call evils, such as poverty, suffering and crime, may in reality be opportunities for good. Such conditions afford occasion for performing many charitable deeds. There is urgent need of these conventions because they exert a great influence for good in bringing about a higher standard of living as well as a better understanding of proper legislation. Eliminate the good resulting from the work of this organization during its period of activity, and what a different picture we would find before us today.

You have reason to be pleased with the results arising from the work you are engaged in and the influence you exert in the state and in every community. These features are fully realized and appreciated by those who are conversant with the method and scope of the Conference.

During the sessions we will have the pleasure of hearing from many able and distinguished men and women who are here to discuss interesting, instructive and profitable topics. Elmira is to be congratulated on the presence of so many distinguished men and women who have come to help make this the most successful conference ever held in the state. Business, social, educational and fraternal ties form a strong and lasting bond of friendship between our citizens and those from other parts of the state, and our people have always shown a true appreciation of the men and women who are working to help the unfortunate to a realization of better things.

On behalf of our citizens I bring your assurances of our hearty sympathy in your work and undertakings and we trust that every year will add new glories and many additional achievements worthy of this great body of active and earnest workers who are striving to do their level best for their fellow men. I trust that your deliberations will be productive of great good, and bring added lustre to the Conference. I know that the people of Elmira fully appreciate your coming. The exceptionally large and in-

structive exhibit is most creditable and it will be productive of great benefits to all who will have the opportunity to view the interesting display. You will meet many friends of former Conferences, and let us hope that you will also form many new and lasting friendships.

The local committee have arranged a program that we trust will prove interesting to all. We hope that your visit will prove pleasant and satisfactory in every particular and that when you return to your homes, you will often have occasion to think favorably of Elmira, the Conference, the friends whom you met here, the members of the local committee and Elmira's institutions. During your stay enjoy the generous hospitality of our citizens which will be manifested in many ways. We bespeak for you a most cordial and enjoyable visit. Again I welcome you most cordially. All are indeed thrice welcome to Elmira.

THE CHAIRMAN: Our next speaker is Zebulon R. Brockway.

ZEBULON R. BROCKWAY: I do not know why two welcoming speeches should be made to the delegates and visitors, and thus defer the pleasure you will have from hearing the addresses of the evening. But so it is. In addition to the good words of welcome of our mayor and in fulfillment of my commission, which is also a privilege, let me extend to the delegates and visitors a special and cordial greeting from our local organized charities, our federated clubs, and from the trustees and directors of this new Federation Building, in which we meet. It is believed that the Chamber of Commerce should be included in this special mention for the service rendered by their office and secretary. Fortunately for you, but unfortunately for me, the mayor has made my speech. I would, if there were time, be glad to speak to you more particularly than he has done of our charity organization.

Although we are quite well advanced, we are still, perhaps, behind the times. I will mention one feature: We have in Elmira, in our charitable organizations, accomplished that which Governor Hughes in his address before your Albany Conference last year mentioned as of great importance, and that is the reconciliation of public and private charities. The new charter of 1906 created a Board of Relief Commissioners who took over from the city all the charitable work that the city controls, or which is entrusted to them; and on the other hand, we have the Bureau of

Associated Relief, of which the mayor has spoken in his address; thus, we have the volunteer and official charities associated.

Now perfect harmony exists, and both organizations are administered without any friction for the reason that the detailed direction of both are vested in the same admirable agent, Miss Anna B. Pratt. (Applause.) And it occurred to me that possibly we have in miniature here an organization of charities that might be serviceable to the state. I do not know but that we may have too many commissioners here on the platform to make it safe to offer this suggestion; but it has occurred to me that we might have at Albany a minister of charities and corrections, with secretaries in charge of the several divisions in which our control and management of these several commissions might be merged, and then the commissions be abolished. I think I will venture to suggest that to Governor Hughes if I get his ear at any time.

The Federated Clubs are domiciled in this building of which we are very proud. There are concentrated here more than twenty charitable or semi-charitable centres of endeavor. Here the women of Elmira are to come. I look upon the moral and social uplift to follow the erection and the activities to be carried on in this building as of the greatest importance. When the women get together, then something will be done, and among the things I anticipate will be accomplished by the women of Elmira, when they coalesce, is that they will demand and obtain unimpeded entrance into any avocation that they may choose. They will demand and obtain equal pay for equal service — equal to the pay given to men. And, God please, ere long they may demand and obtain political enfranchisement.

I wish to commend the program as the mayor has done; first, for the choice of topics. They are remedial. I remember half a century ago, in attending charitable conventions our sympathies were excited by tales of woe, and no remedies were suggested. Then I wish to commend the sequential arrangement of the program. You have to-night after I get through blatherskiting, the question of health — public health, which lies at the root of all civic progress. Naturally, to-morrow there follows the topic "standard of living" and the "regulation of labor." Now the improved standard of living involves improved taste. Improved taste involves increased wants, and increased wants calls for additional income, and when additional income comes to the class to which it belongs, then invention and economy and enterprise in all the

interests of the land must follow. After the consideration of these great topics to which I may only allude, you go on the last day to the topic of the removal of inhibitions, and the proper care and custody of inhibitors. That brings before us the whole question of institutional care of the various inhabitants of the state.

I understand that there are about a hundred thousand defectives, dependent, and dangerous inhabitants of institutions supported by the state to-day, dependent and dangerous because they are defective. Mr. Murphy said in his address last year that the annual appropriation was seven and one-quarter million. If we add to that the private appropriations, we have forty million dollars a year for the cost of charities in the state. Out of the curative and reformatory philanthropy of the nineteenth century, we have at the dawn of the twentieth turned more to prevention of the evils we vainly sought to cure. But thus far, too little attention is given to the most promising field of preventive effort, namely, the sixteen millions of children in the common schools of the land. But this thought cannot now be pursued.

Ladies and gentlemen, you have wisely chosen a city of the third class, Elmira, for this Conference—for in cities of the smaller size can best be introduced, tested and perfected new and improved administrative measures. In New York and some of the larger cities of the state, it seems, the populations must make specially difficult the solution of such problems as those that are to engage our attention here this week. They are so large there as to be unwieldy. We here greet you not altogether unselfishly. We are sure to derive during the Conference much of valuable information. The inspiration of these assemblages will give zest—add impetus to our local charitable organizations and work, for are we not with one accord in one place which is the traditional condition most favorable to inspirations? Our unity of purpose—community of interest—will create and cement individual friendships that shall contribute to the sum of human fraternity which is the harbinger of the better state. You are thrice welcome—to our city, our hearths and our hearts.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN OF THE CONFERENCE AND FELLOW CITIZENS.—A distinguished orator has recently said: "The world is growing toward brotherhood and our nation is leading the way. There is more altruism in this country than anywhere else in the world. * * * There is more recognition of the

kinship that exists between us, more thought about the questions which concern a common humanity than at any preceding time."

If the historian is to chronicle this as a period of acquisition of material wealth, so he must also record it as an era of helpfulness. Public gifts and bequests in these days, in our country, are as colossal in amount as fortunes are enormous; examples of generosity tend to stimulate similar action, until the sums given in philanthropy are practically beyond computation.

An estimate was published at the beginning of the current year in which it was stated, that \$149,000,000 had been given in benefactions during 1907. Of these sums over seventy millions went to educational institutions, nearly ten millions to religious organizations, museums, art galleries and public improvements, about three millions for libraries, and it was estimated that to charities and charitable organizations there was contributed about fifty million dollars.

The earlier history of the human race gives instances of — as the earliest laws of Hammurabi, of Moses and of their successors announce obligations for — individual charity. The scriptural word which the revisers have translated "charity," and which is thus ordinarily accepted, has, in the original Hebrew, a much deeper significance than the accepted translation implies. Its meaning is "righteousness," and its etymology furnishes a subject for interesting thought. In its stricter sense it would thus respond to the most advanced ideas of altruism — of duty on the one hand to relieve, and on the other, of the privilege of the necessitous to avail of the opportunity.

The ethical and moral obligation to aid one's neighbor — from the duty which existed in the times of nomadic and segregated human families and colonies, up to that which applies to congested modern population, presents different phases; like all human problems, the remedy has been adjusted by developing stages, and with the growth and needs of the community, have changed the measure and administration of relief.

Of course, its basis is the moral human impulse to help one another, first as to those who have the natural right, arising from blood relationship, which may be said to be almost an animal impulse, to that of the higher development expanding with mental and moral growth, until it is recognized that, like swinging around a circle, the ultimate and highest development, after all, comes back to the very first principle, to the giving of one's self. It is a

far cry from the widow's mite, from the grain or two of rice which one beggar, in India or Egypt, from his girdle-fastened cup, will give to the other less successful mendicant, displaying perhaps, the supremest type of individual charitable action. to present day methods.

In Ely's Introduction to Political Economy, first published in 1889, it is stated:

"We are beginning to hear of a science of charity, and it is sorely needed, for old fashioned alms giving is a curse."

The last quarter century shows no record of sociological progress better exemplified than in the establishment of schools of philanthropy and social science in various parts of our country, with their established curricula, their teachers and their students. The work of these schools has already made itself manifest, and in the future is certain to make itself still more felt by equipping with modern thought and modern methods its graduates who are to devote their trained efforts to the practical application of charities and correction.

Charity, however scientific may be its administration, must be humanly sympathetic. As the individual is the archtype of human society, so associated philanthropies, being but aggregations of mankind, are instituted and sustained by individual charitable impulse. Concerted action, in the last analysis, is based on the moral perception of individual duty which arises in the persons composing the group.

Man is applying his intellect, as well as his ethical, moral and religious impulses to the new and ever changing condition of human affairs. Since early history there have been cities, although congestion such as is now known is doubtless of later growth; but while poverty has always existed, means have always been devised for the application of charitable and humane remedies. It has been manifest that newer methods are required to meet the changed phases of human want and suffering amid the new sociological conditions presented in modern life, so that we have come to this day and time to see applied many organized efforts of human activity in this field.

ORGANIZED CHARITIES.

In our country the associated and organized labor of charitable and correctional bodies has found greatest development. Practically each city has its charity organization, each state its

conference of charities; there is a National Conference of Charities and Correction, and the total number of enrolled workers in these conferences and organizations aggregates thousands. The first National Conference of Charities and Correction was held in 1874, thirty-four years ago. The first state conference was held in 1881, twenty-seven years ago. The latest and highest development was doubtless in the International Tuberculosis Conference held in Washington in 1908.

Governor Hughes in an address of welcome in Albany last year, referred to the assemblage of those interested in the tuberculosis campaign, as representatives of the "organized militia of philanthropy." The officers and members of the national and various state conferences may well be designated as the regular army of philanthropy. Like other similar bodies, the organization of this conference is the result of the desire on the part of those mutually interested, to render this philanthropic work most effective and systematic. The proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, as well as those of the state of New York and other states, contain evidences of the labors of the workers and thinkers in these fields. Good results are certain to follow organized effort, as well as from the interchange of views and opinions, based upon practical experience, by men and women actually engaged in the administration of charitable and correctional organizations and institutions. Besides the important and valuable topics which have heretofore been discussed in the New York State Conferences, and published in the eight volumes of its proceedings, to which may be added those so promisingly indicated by the program of this Conference, there are subjects of political economy and sociology within its field which justify, if not demand, attention. An examination into the status of the official charities and corrections of our state discloses conditions which deserve serious consideration.

STATISTICS AS TO CHARITIES.

It is doubtful whether among the lessons which past experience teaches, there are any of greater value than those which demand the securing by each period of its own accurate sociological statistics, so that the scientist and the student may base observations, and the legislator and administrator may apply remedies where required. Surely no statistics can be of greater value than those which relate to the dependents, defectives and delinquents of the commonwealth.

The State Board of Charities in this state was created in 1867, and since that time there has been an apparent effort on the part of the state to establish some system in its charitable affairs. This board was created a constitutional body in 1896, but before that time laws had been so framed that orderly and systematic supervision and inspection were provided for. The constitutional provision engraved on the organic law what had been substantially provided by statute.

The charities law of this state provides, that in its annual report to the Legislature: "The board shall * * * furnish in tabulated statements as nearly as possible, the number, sex, age and nativity of persons in this state, and in the several counties thereof, who are in any way receiving the aid of public, private or organized charity, with any other particulars it may deem proper." Charities law, § 17.

To provide the official material, the State Board of Charities for some years required that every charitable institution, subject to its visitation, should make an annual report to that board as prescribed by its rules, containing statements, tables and data of its yearly activities. It is needless, before this Conference, to enlarge upon the importance of the statistics thus obtained, or to state that the value of such statistics is largely dependent upon the extent to which they include all of the institutions and organizations engaged in carrying on the charities of the state.

In the year 1899, a controversy having arisen between the State Board of Charities and the New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children as to the authority of the board to visit its institutions, it was finally decided by the Court of Appeals that the philanthropic, charitable and eleemosynary institutions referred to in the constitution were only such as were in receipt of public moneys, that is — moneys raised by taxation. As the right to require reports under the law is tested by the right to visit and inspect, the decision thus rendered, resultantly compelled the State Board of Charities to discontinue visiting and inspecting, and on the other hand, released the institutions not receiving public moneys from making reports to it. The loss to the state and to its official records, in being deprived of reliable and complete statistics on this subject, is manifestly a serious matter.

President William R. Stewart, of the State Board of Charities, in a published statement asserted that at the close of the year

1899 about twelve hundred charitable institutions, societies and associations had been visited and inspected by the state board, and had reported to it, and the data regarding the same had been published by the board as usual in its annual reports and included in its statistics. One thousand and eighty of these were private institutions and of these six hundred and sixty-three were entirely supported from private sources; these included day nurseries, homes for aged persons, for the blind, for children, for women and children, for women and girls, general hospitals, hospitals for convalescents, a reformatory for children, reformatories for women and girls besides a large number of other charitable institutions, societies or associations, caring in some manner for the dependent and helpless classes.

The inmates of the institutions specially named by classes, during the year 1899, numbered 57,571, and through the operations of other charitable organizations not specially named, 540,000 needy persons were relieved. This public statement further showed that these six hundred and sixty-three private charities, which received no public moneys, had received during the year mentioned, about \$9,500,000, and had expended about \$8,000,000. As to this latter class which were to be no longer visited and inspected by the board, no further reports were to be required, and since that time no reports as to these institutions have been made to the board, although these and others since established have continued their philanthropic work. The reports, therefore, published by the State Board of Charities as a part of the state's records became, since 1899, and are, incomplete, and for now nearly ten years no full official statistics of work done by private charitable organizations which do not receive public moneys have been gathered. The effect of that decision has therefore been to impair the completeness, and hence the value of the official statistics in this field of public affairs. At a gathering such as this, it seems appropriate to call attention to such conditions, and it is worthy of its deliberate consideration, to the end that, if practicable, some remedy should be found.

Section 15 of Article VIII of the State Constitution provides that "the Legislature may confer upon the commissions and upon the board mentioned in the foregoing sections any additional powers that are not inconsistent with other provisions of the Con-

stitution." Under this section it might be claimed that the Legislature has the authority to confer upon the State Board of Charities the power to require reports from all charitable and eleemosynary bodies, whether in receipt of public funds or not. As to corporations, such reports could doubtless be required by statute, but private institutions, organizations and individuals might assert that it would be an invasion of constitutional rights. Although it is not easy to suggest a remedy under the general doctrine of "police power," a statute might perhaps be sustained which would insure the data required for the statistician, the legislator and the historian. But the fact remains, as has been stated, and there has been no enactment by the Legislature in this direction.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION UNCO-ORDINATED.

Another and still more important matter of state policy is presented for what modern sociologists call "agitational" purposes. It has to do with the co-ordination and possible unification of the administration of the state's charities and correction. The state of New York maintains sixteen hospitals for the insane, fifteen institutions which are denominated state charitable institutions, besides two state reformatories for males and three state prisons; the number of inmates is approximately 43,000; there was appropriated by the last Legislature about \$9,500,000, for the administration and maintenance of these charitable, eleemosynary, correctional and reformatory institutions.

Under the present constitution the supervision of these institutions is committed to three separate bodies; Article VIII, section 11, as to their general duties and powers, states:

"The Legislature shall provide for a state board of charities, which shall visit and inspect all institutions, whether state, county, municipal, incorporated or not incorporated, which are of a charitable, eleemosynary, correctional or reformatory character * * *; a state commission in lunacy which shall visit and inspect all institutions, either public or private, used for the care and treatment of the insane * * *; a state commission of prisons which shall visit and inspect all institutions used for the detention of sane adults charged with or convicted of crime, or detained as witnesses or debtors."

The laws existing in 1894 relating to institutions referred to in the section quoted and to their supervision and inspection, were to remain in force until amended or repealed by the Legislature (§ 13).

No attempt has been made by the Legislature to co-ordinate these bodies; many laws have been passed from time to time relating to them, but there has been no effort to bring them together in a general system, and to-day this feature of the state's activities remains in an incongruous, unco-ordinated and unbusiness like condition.

THE CONSTITUTIONAL BOARD AND COMMISSIONS.

1. The State Board of Charities is composed of twelve members, one from each of the nine judicial districts, and three additional members from the county of New York. These serve without compensation excepting a limited, nominal per diem for actual attendance upon board and committee meetings, together with traveling expenses.

2. The Prisons Commission has seven members, who receive a limited nominal per diem the same as the commissioners of the State Board of Charities.

3. The Lunacy Commission consists of three commissioners; one must be a physician with certain requirements and qualifications and is by law the president of the commission, receiving a salary of \$7,500. The second commissioner must be a lawyer of at least ten years' standing, and receives a salary of \$5,000. The third commissioner, a layman, to receive a salary of \$5,000. Each commissioner receives \$1,200 per annum in lieu of his traveling and other incidental expenses.

POWERS AND DUTIES.

1. The State Board of Charities.

(a) The functions of this board as to institutions are inspectorial and visitorial; it has no powers of administration as to them. It is authorized to approve or disapprove of the proposed incorporation of institutions under private control, and generally to aid in the proper conduct and preservation of information regarding the institutions which are subject to its supervision and visitation. It is also required to approve or disapprove plans for new buildings for almshouses, and to establish rules for the recep-

tion and retention of inmates of all private charitable institutions which are in receipt of public funds. The visitation of family homes in which dependent children have been placed by poor-law officers and others, devolves upon this board; and it must "aid in securing the establishment and maintenance of such industrial, educational and moral training in institutions having the care of children as is best suited to the needs of the inmates."

(b) It administers the laws providing for the care, support and removal of state and alien poor and the support of Indian poor persons; for these purposes it receives an annual appropriation and has established a separate department.

(c) Supplies for the state charitable institutions are purchased under contracts awarded by a purchasing committee (for the operation of which an appropriation in 1908 of \$1,700 was made) composed of representatives of the state charitable and reformatory institutions, but all estimates for such supplies and complete control of the expenditures for these institutions are lodged with the fiscal supervisor of state charities.

(d) The State Board of Charities is equipped with executive officers, consisting, besides the president and vice-president, who receive no salary, of a secretary, clerks and stenographers; it also has a corps of inspectors under two superintendents.

The Legislature provided for the work of the Board during the fiscal year, about \$80,000, of which about \$45,000 was for the maintenance and administration of the state and alien poor department.

(e) The fifteen institutions maintained by the state, and the ten educational institutions for the blind and deaf-mutes under private management, but mainly supported by state appropriations, which are subject to the board's visitation and inspection, have about 9,600 beneficiaries. Each institution has its own board of managers or trustees.

The objects, purposes and work of these institutions are various. There are educational institutions like the schools for the blind and the deaf, and the Indian School as well as the Syracuse Institution for Feeble-Minded Children. In the hospital group the Raybrook Hospital for Incipient Tuberculosis, the Hospital for Crippled and Deformed Children, and the Craig Colony for Epileptics are to be placed. Besides these, are homes like the Soldiers and Sailors' Home at Bath and at Oxford; custodial asylums for the idiots and feeble-minded at Rome and Newark; a training

school for girls at Hudson; reformatories for women at Albion and Bedford, and for boys at Randall's Island and the State Industrial School in Monroe county.

2. The Prisons Commission.

(a) The State Commission of Prisons is charged with the statutory duty: To visit and inspect all institutions used for the detention of sane adults charged with or convicted of crime or detained as witnesses or debtors; to aid in securing the just, humane and economic administration of all such institutions; to aid in securing the erection of suitable buildings for such institutions, and to approve or reject plans for their construction or improvement; to investigate the management of all such institutions and the conduct of the officials thereof; to secure the best sanitary conditions of the buildings and grounds, and protect and preserve the health of the inmates; to collect statistical information in respect to such institutions, and ascertain and recommend a system of employing the inmates in harmony with the provisions of the constitution relating to the employment of prisoners; to diversify the various industries in the prisons of the state so as to provide supplies for the institutions of the state and the political divisions thereof, and distribute such industries among the penal institutions; to annually procure estimates of all supplies required, and make rules for the diversification of industries and requisitions for supplies from public institutions; and to annually report to the Legislature all details of its work, with such recommendations as it deems proper.

(b) The state prisons under the jurisdiction of this commission are those at Auburn, Clinton and Sing Sing, the Auburn prison for women, and the new prison now in course of construction in Orange county.

(c) The superintendent of prisons is the active, controlling, executive officer of the prisons of the state; there are no boards of managers for these institutions. He is appointed by the governor by and with the advice and consent of the senate, and appoints all agents, wardens, physicians and chaplains. The comptroller appoints the financial clerks of the prisons.

(d) The State Commission of Prisons and superintendency of prisons are separately organized, each having its own offices. The commission has a secretary, clerk and stenographer, and the superintendent a large office force. The legislative appropriation for the

administration expenses for the current year for the State Commission of Prisons and "Prison Department" is upwards of \$60,000.

(e) Supplies for the prisons are purchased by the wardens, upon the approval of the superintendent, each warden is practically an independent buyer.

3. The State Commission in Lunacy.

(a) This commission has supervision over the expenditures of all state hospitals for the insane; no disbursements for any purpose can be made by these institutions except upon quarterly estimates, which must be submitted to the commission for revision and approval. All vouchers for the maintenance and building improvements account of the state hospitals are paid through the office of the commission. The state hospitals are required to report to the commission annually, and it must report to the Legislature. No private institution for the insane can lawfully exist without a license from it. From time to time, with the approval of the governor, secretary of state and comptroller, it fixes the annual salaries of the resident officers of the state hospitals which are to be uniform for like services. It is authorized to appoint a medical inspector who visits and inspects all institutions for the insane.

(b) State hospitals for the insane.

These state hospitals are governed by boards of managers, appointed by the governor and confirmed by the senate; and under the statutes have the general supervision of the hospitals. They establish by-laws, rules and regulations relative to the appointment and duties of officers and employees of the hospitals and for the internal government of the same, and are to maintain an effective inspection. The Lunacy Commission appoints for each hospital, with the approval of the board of managers, a superintendent, who is its chief executive officer; he, subject to the regulations of the board of managers, appoints the steward, has the general superintendence of the buildings, grounds and property and the direction and control of all persons therein. The superintendents of all the hospitals meet whenever called upon, at the office of the commission in lunacy, to consult with the commission upon matters relating to the care and maintenance of the state hospitals.

(c) The deportation of alien insane is part of the work of this department. A board of alienists of three physicians at a salary of \$5,000 each, is appointed by and acts under the direction of the commission to examine immigrants and to secure the return of alien insane persons. The return of insane residents of other

states is in the hands of the superintendents of the state hospitals and the commission. The commission appoints agents, whose duty it is to recover the cost of support from the friends and relatives of patients who are legally liable and able to reimburse the state therefor in whole or in part.

(d) The supplies for the state hospitals are purchased under a contract system by the stewards of the hospitals, but in the metropolitan district by a purchasing steward upon estimates approved by the State Commission in Lunacy. This commission has its secretary, bookkeeper, clerks and agents; among its employees is a common treasurer for all the hospitals and an auditor of state hospital estimates; these two latter each receive a salary of \$4,000. The appropriation made by the Legislature for the current year for the administration of the State Commission in Lunacy, is about \$76,000, besides the sum of \$30,000 for the maintenance of a pathological institute under its direction.

GENERAL CONDITION.

The situation as to the constitutional boards and their relation to the state institutions may be summed up in the following general statement: the State Prisons Commission has no relation with the reformatories or training schools, excepting the right of visitation to institutions in which there are adult prisoners; the lunacy commission has in its charge hospitals for the insane, but not institutions for the idiots, feeble-minded and epileptics; even as to the criminal insane there is divided authority between the superintendent of prisons and the Commission in Lunacy. The jurisdiction of the State Board of Charities covers reformatories and training schools for boys, training schools for girls and reformatories for women, but not reformatories for men. There are other incongruities which will appear later.

STATUTORY BOARDS AND COMMISSIONS.

There have been created by statute, from time to time, other boards, commissions and officers, both temporary and permanent, the powers and duties of which are fairly within the sphere of the constitutional bodies heretofore mentioned. The following are here mentioned to show some other existent agencies for the state's administration of its charitable, eleemosynary, correctional and reformatory affairs:

1. A fiscal supervisor of state charities appointed by the governor (by and with the advice and consent of the Senate) for a term of five years at an annual salary of \$6,000. He has a deputy at a salary of \$3,500. The duties of the fiscal supervisor are to examine into all matters connected with the financial management and revise all estimates for supplies for the fifteen state charitable institutions under the supervision of the State Board of Charities, and the Elmira and Napanoch reformatories. There is a force of clerks, stenographers, inspectors, and employees in this bureau, and the appropriation for its administration for 1908 was over \$30,000.

2. Salary Classification Commission consisting of the president of the State Board of Charities and the state comptroller; the duty of this commission is to classify, subject to the approval of the governor, the salaries and wages in all of the state charitable institutions.

3. A Probation Commission of seven members; one of whom is appointed by the State Board of Charities from its number; one by the State Commission of Prisons from its members; the commissioner of education is a member ex-officio, the other four are appointed by the governor, and all serve without compensation.

The general duties of the commission are to collect and publish statistical and other information as to the operations of the probation system; to keep itself informed as to the work of all probation officers, and from time to time to inquire into their conduct and efficiency and by such other means as are most suitable, endeavor to secure the effective application of the probation system and enforcement of the probation law in all parts of the state. It makes an annual report to the Legislature. The appropriation for 1908 was, for traveling expenses of commissioners, salary of secretary, of employees and for general expenses, \$8,500.

4. In 1904 the comptroller, the fiscal supervisor, the president of the board of managers of the Society for the Reformation of Juvenile Delinquents in the city of New York, the president of the State Board of Charities, and the state architect were directed to secure lands for the New York State Training School for Boys. In 1907 this commission was reconstituted with three members and, in 1908, further power was conferred upon it to purchase a site with the approval of the State Board of Charities and the governor. Members of the commission, other than those receiving salary as state officers, receive a nominal per diem compensation.

5. A commission to select a site for the Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum, consisting of three persons appointed by the governor. They serve without compensation.

6. A Commission of Immigration, which is to serve without compensation and make inquiry, investigation and examination into the condition, welfare and industrial opportunities of aliens, in this state. Ten thousand dollars were appropriated for the use of this board.

7. By statute in 1906, there was created a State Board of Managers of Reformatories to consist of seven members to be appointed by the governor by and with the advice of the senate, to serve without compensation. The state reformatories at Elmira and Napanoch are committed to the management and control of this board, which has power to parole all prisoners therein, and to transfer the officers and employees as well as prisoners. The board appoints one superintendent for both reformatories, and an assistant superintendent for each.

8. A Board of Parole for State Prisons, consisting of the superintendent and two persons appointed by the governor, by and with the advice and consent of the senate. This board is to consider and act upon applications for the parole of prisoners, who, having served the minimum terms of their sentences (not less than five years) are entitled to make such application. There was in 1908 an appropriation of \$1,800 for compensation for each of the members, other than the superintendent, and \$3,375 to provide for salaries from the date of their appointment to October, 1908.

9. The State Board of Classification, consisting of the Fiscal Supervisor of State Charities, the Superintendent of State Prisons, a member of the State Commission of Prisons and one of the Commission in Lunacy.

This board determines the value of all labor performed, and fixes the prices of all articles manufactured for sale in the prisons and reformatories; determines the styles, patterns, designs and qualities of articles to be manufactured for the public offices and institutions of the state.

10. A Commission on New Prisons, consisting of the superintendent of prisons and four other persons appointed by the governor. They (other than the superintendent) receive as compensation ten dollars per diem, while actually engaged in the performance of their duties. The duties of this commission are to

select a site and to act as a board of managers in the erection of a new state prison.

11. A Commission to select a State Farm for Women. It consists of the president of the Prisons Commission, the superintendent of prisons, one member of the State Board of Charities and two other persons, the last three appointed by the governor; they serve without compensation.

12. A Commission to Investigate the Condition of the Blind was created by statute; it was composed of three members to serve without compensation. The sum of \$12,000 was appropriated for its expenses. This commission reported to the Legislature in 1907 the results of its labors, and recommended the enactment of a law for the appointment of a state board for the blind and for an appropriation not exceeding \$40,000, to be expended within one year after the law was passed.

13. The State Building Improvement Commission consists of the governor, the president of the State Board of Charities and the fiscal supervisor. This board is to pass upon and approve or reject all plans and specifications for new buildings for, or unusual repairs or improvements to, any state charitable institution or the New York State School for the Blind.

No attempt has been made to state all the duties and powers of these statutory bodies and officers, nor to enumerate such as have gone out of existence, but they have been mentioned to present a view of the special fields occupied by and duties committed to them respectively. The question may well be asked whether such matters might not best be committed to existent constitutional bodies and officers.

Co-ordination and Unification.

It seems clear, however, that if there were one well-equipped department of charities and correction it could have charge of both general and special matters; and the state be benefited by the expert services which such a department could furnish, in addition to securing systematic and enduring records.

The co-ordination and, so far as practicable, the unification of the state's charities and corrections would prove beneficial in many ways:

First. To the state and to the large unfortunate classes which have to be provided for, resulting in a better and more scientific classification and treatment of the inmates.

Statistics show that in October, 1908, there were in :

State prisons	4,110
State hospitals for the insane.....	30,507
State reformatories for males (Elmira and Napanoch)...	1,937
State charitable institutions	8,432
Blind and deaf in state schools.....	2,050
Total directly provided for by state.....	47,036

It is difficult to find the particular place for border line cases, or for cases suffering from various phases of abnormality, and to make transfers as occasion demands. The departments are independent of each other, and there are no means of transfer by direct departmental action. This would be remedied were there broader and co-ordinated or centralized authority.

General policies appertaining to administration could also be adopted. While there are necessarily great variations in the treatment and management of these classes there are certainly many which could be treated on similar lines. For example, there are general policies applicable as well to prisons as to other forms of custodial segregation — such as for the insane, the idiotic and the feeble-minded. There must be lines of medical and surgical science which would find more or less application under one general oversight to the various classes. A general staff of specialists might have charge of the scientific treatment and classification, as well as such related matters as the general care and diet.

There are surely common principles applicable to prisons, to reformatories and training schools, for the most modern conception of prisons is that they should all be reformatories.

Second. Financial economies would result. The state appropriated last year, in round numbers, \$9,500,000 for the prisons, the charitable institutions and the state hospitals. There are certain simple business propositions connected with and applicable to the expenditures of such a sum of money, and some practical general system should be evolved. The inmates are to be housed and fed and clothed, and creature comforts supplied. The state is both a producer and consumer of clothing and some other supplies which are made in the prisons. The present varied plans for procuring ordinary supplies are cumbersome and result necessarily in different prices for the same articles, hence one general plan for procuring and distributing supplies is palpably a sound business proposition,

and would at least save the separate labor of several sets of employees. Would not classification of salaries, wages and labor be better arranged by one central bureau? Now there are three different schedules of salaries for substantially the same kind of service. Approximately two hundred and fifty commissioners, superintendents, inspectors, clerks and employees are in the administration bureaus, and it seems evident that the expenses of these bureaus as now arranged are necessarily larger than if consolidated and concentrated.

The various commissions and boards occupy probably fifteen suites of rooms for offices in the Capitol at Albany. The present unco-ordinated methods produce other incongruous and expensive results. For each of the thirteen hospitals for the insane, the statute makes provision for an attorney; if required at all, his duties might and should be discharged by the attorney-general, the constitutional law officer of the state; to the state comptroller should be committed the duties and responsibilities of all fiscal affairs; this officer might establish bureaus to have charge of these several matters.

Governor Hughes seems to have been impressed with the fact that co-ordination is desirable as to some of these matters. He said in his last message to the Legislature:

“ I recommend that, in order to obtain desirable uniformity and to provide a method by which any necessary changes may be effected with due regard to the entire service of the state, provision shall be made for the classification and fixing of salaries in the charitable institutions, in the hospitals for the insane, and in the prisons by a board of control, in which the respective classes of institutions, through their supervisory boards and officers, shall have suitable representation.

“ The same reason obtains with reference to purchases of provisions and supplies in the various institutions. To a large extent supplies of the same sort are required in the different institutions and it is desirable that these should be purchased by the state under one system and through a single board. This can be accomplished by having purchases made through the same board of control, representing all institutions, as that which fixes the salaries.”

No legislative action resulted, however. While the suggested change is manifestly advisable, we must look to a change in the organic law to secure concentrated administration.

Constitutional Amendments.

Under our present Constitution, at the general election to be held in the year 1916, the question is to be decided by the electors of the state whether there shall be a "convention to revise the Constitution and amend the same." It is not probable that this question will be presented before that time, but it is presumable, as it will have been twenty years since the last convention, that then it may be decided in the affirmative. Therefore, it is not premature to present this topic for consideration. Its discussion by those interested in this branch of the state's activities will result in a greater public familiarity with these important problems when the time for action arrives.

Difficulties and perplexities in endeavoring to accomplish a revised system will be met; the present conditions have arisen from the extraordinary growth of the state and the expansion of its work, but without due regard to a systematic co-ordination of the whole work. The best interests of the state must be championed by disinterested citizens who understand and devote themselves to its philanthropies. In some of our sister states a central body has control of all similar institutions. A general, non-partisan board or commission in this state might be established with compensation not large enough to tempt the covetous or, probably better still, without salary. Competent and desirable citizens should be found who would undertake this important work. Among the obligations of citizenship the discharge of civic duties is not less important, although usually less emergent than military service. It would be a sad commentary if associated with the great material prosperity of the citizens of our nation and state there was no willingness to meet such patriotic civic obligations. A general board or commission might have administrative charge of all these institutions and of related matters, with power to appoint competent general superintendents of the groups and also boards of medical experts, retaining, as would probably be regarded desirable, subdivisions dealing with general charities, corrections and lunacy. The principle of retaining boards of managers for institutions, at least for purposes of visitation, is justified on the ground of keeping citizens interested in the administration of public affairs, and of having individual managers in direct touch with the inmates. I believe the necessity for a change, such as has been suggested, has been demonstrated.

I have presented these facts in no representative capacity, but as my individual views as a citizen. I do not speak for my

colleagues in the State Board of Charities, either individually or collectively, but deem it my duty to give these views to my fellow citizens, and particularly those engaged in its philanthropic work, to the end that public interest may be aroused, which must lead to improved conditions in matters which are of great importance to the commonwealth.

The Conference will now take up for consideration the first of the special topics of its program, "The Public Health," and I take great pleasure in introducing to you Dr. George W. Goler, of Rochester, the Chairman of the Committee on Public Health.

DR. GEORGE W. GOLER: I am honored, indeed, by appointment as chairman of the Committee on Public Health, Including the Prevention of Tuberculosis, and I wish to take this means to express to my fellow members on that committee my thanks for their co-operation and for this arrangement of the program.

The report of the committee is very brief: On behalf of the Committee on Public Health, Including the Prevention of Tuberculosis, I have the honor to present a few comments on a program which is the report of the committee. In selecting this program it is the hope of the committee that the subjects dealt with be introductory to questions which should provoke full discussion, and serve at least as suggestions for the broader discussion of those questions which relate to the prevention of disease, particularly those diseases which in the past have been discussed only in little groups, or, perhaps, because they are too big and too important, not discussed at all.

The committee has, therefore, asked three gentlemen, each distinguished for original and valuable work upon the subject to which his name is attached, to speak to you upon that part of the subject which underlies the prevention of disease. The committee wishes to ask especially your thought upon the relation which these subjects may have to the potential vigor of the nation as embodied in the greatest wealth of the nation — its children?

Has the use of alcohol any influence on the public health, and if so, is it good or bad? Does the influence of alcohol upon public health affect the child directly or indirectly, as making for greater happiness, or does it affect the national growth through physical, mental and moral wretchedness? Do the enormous income from licenses, the sale of alcohol under the guise of patent medicines, the fact that millions are invested in the manufacture and sale

of alcohol as a beverage weigh against any damage it may do to the child? We do not speak for the maker of alcoholic beverages.

I have the honor to introduce one whose name is widely known as a special worker and teacher in nervous diseases; a man connected for many years with the State Lunacy Commission, and who for a long period has given special attention to this subject. I take great pleasure in introducing to you one who comes all the way from New York City to address you, Dr. Frederick Peterson.

DR. FREDERICK PETERSON: The mysterious power which has led mankind through all these ages from the protozoon up to man, through combat and struggle with the elements, with natural enemies, with disease, seems always to give us at the proper moment, when it is most needed, the means of rescue, the power to triumph. So in these later years, when physical structure has been safe-guarded and more or less perfected, and there is need of speedier spiritual growth and development, that same power sows in a million minds the seeds from which spring freedom, social reform, moral uplifting, greater knowledge of the uses of the matter and forces all about us, and warnings of whatever may endanger the progress of the human race. Thus it must be that practically at the same moment all over the world, in Great Britain, Scandinavia, Germany, France, Italy, the United States, there has arisen a wave of feeling against the misuse of alcohol.

It is true that whenever a child is born, the forces of nature bear down upon it with all the hereditary impetus of a hundred million years to make and keep it a normal average. But it also is true that there are powerful factors which may deflect and pervert this hereditary tendency to a normal average, and these factors are such as affect the nervous system, diseases and poisons. Insanity and epilepsy are among the diseases that taint our progeny. Alcohol is the chief poison that has this baneful power. As an example of what one individual may do I might cite the oft-quoted Jukes family in the state of New York. One hard drinker was the originator of this family which over a generation ago, when Dugdall wrote his book, had become already 1,200 in number. In his summary of the study of the Jukes family of degenerates the author says:

"Over a million and a quarter dollars of loss in seventy-five years, caused by a single family 1,200 strong, without reckoning the cash paid for whiskey, or taking into account the entailment of pauperism and crime of the survivors in succeeding generations,

and the incurable disease, idiocy and insanity growing out of this debauchery, and reaching further than we can calculate."

This is one family.

In the state of New York there are now some 30,000 insane in the public and private hospitals, and it is estimated that twenty per cent. of these, or 6,000 patients, owe their insanity to alcohol. In all the asylums of the United States are 150,000 insane, and assuming the same percentage, there are 30,000 individuals in this country in whom alcohol has brought about insanity. Dr. McDonald calculates that one insane person is an approximate loss to the state of \$400 per year. Hence the actual loss in money to the state of New York through alcoholic insanity is \$2,400,000, and to the United States \$12,000,000 every year.

Alcohol is often a direct cause of epilepsy, but more often epilepsy is due to alcoholism in parents. Thus Bourneville in a study of over 2,500 idiots, epileptics and imbeciles admitted to the Bicetre hospital found that over forty-one per cent. of them had drunken parents. In the report of the Craig Colony for Epileptics it was found that over twenty-two per cent. of 950 cases of epilepsy had alcoholic parents.

There is not time here to take up the subject of the relation of alcohol to pauperism and crime. But what I want to point out is that the asylums for the insane, the institutions for epileptics, idiots and feeble minded, the prisons and the county poorhouses, are representative as far as their alcoholic population is concerned of the extremes of alcoholic indulgence and debauchery. Here alcohol has done its worst to the living individual. Below this topmost wave of ruin and desolation are innumerable gradations of alcoholism down to the moderate drinkers and the temperate or occasional drinkers.

The race is reasonably safe from further contamination by those victims of alcohol who are locked away in the retreats that our charitable world provides for them. It is otherwise with the vaster number of excessive drinkers, who are free to work any havoc in the social organism about us and who are direct and indirect feeders of the institutions named. What these may do to themselves and their wives and their children and their children's children we have come to learn, and it is because of this awakening to a common danger to the human race that the nations of the earth are combined in a common campaign. It is not a single Jukes family that society has ranged itself against, but against the legions of Jukes families that menace the human stock.

It is because physicians have been brought into contact with this destructiveness that they are leaders everywhere in the great crusade. They feel themselves to be the guardians of the health of the racial mind and body. Just as they fight tuberculosis and typhoid fever and many other infectious diseases, so do they array themselves against the dangerous agent that crowds the hospitals, prisons and almshouses with its countless victims. They may differ among themselves upon minor points, such as whether alcohol has any nutritive value, whether it should ever be used as a stimulant in sickness, whether moderate drinking is always harmful, but the medical profession is as one in its stand against the abuse of alcohol which leads to the wrecking of the home and race degeneracy. The question of the harmfulness of drink has grown more acute to the medical men of late years, for with the wonderful progress of their science in all departments, this too has had its share of scientific study and investigations, from the clinical, pathological and experimental standpoints. The evidence thus accumulated in the past twenty to thirty years has established so many convincing facts that they are roused as never before to the need of restricting the sale of alcoholic beverages, and of teaching the public the facts they have come to know. They all agree that alcohol is a poison taken in any form — beer, wine, hard cider, rum, whiskey, bitters or patent medicines. There is no question as to its being a poison.

The retort that the active principles of tea and coffee are also poisons is no argument in favor of alcohol, for while taken in excess tea and coffee do induce certain mild nervous disorders, these are insignificant when compared with the unparalleled destructiveness of drink.

The discussion as to whether alcohol is ever a food is equally idle and evasive of the main issue. It is not a food like bread and butter, for it has venom in it. As Prof. Abel of Johns Hopkins University says, "It is an easily oxidizable *drug* with numerous untoward effects which inevitably appear when a certain minimum dose is exceeded." I have italicized the word *drug*, because it is as a drug that alcohol is now regarded by most physicians. It is placed among the narcotics and anæsthetics. I should like here to present a very brief summary of what scientific investigators have recently determined to be the action of this drug:

It is no longer considered to be a stimulant, but rather a depressant.

It perverts digestion.

It depresses and weakens the heart action.

It decreases the capacity to do muscular work.

It diminishes the intellectual functions, by dulling the creative faculty, impairing judgment, vitiating the correctness of perceptions and by generating timidity.

It brings about slow far-reaching anatomical changes, such as fatty degeneration of the heart, kidney disease, diseases of the blood-vessels, changes in the muscular tissues and in the cells and fibres of the nervous system.

Its habitual use lessens the normal defenses of the organism against infectious diseases, especially tuberculosis.

In this connection I cannot do better than commend to your attention the extremely able article on Alcohol and the Individual by Dr. Henry Smith Williams in *McClure's Magazine* for October, in which all the best authorities are quoted *in extenso*. It is the most complete résumé of our scientific knowledge of the subject that has yet appeared.

With such an array of fact and authority before you, you will readily understand the position of physicians on this subject, and why they are the leaders in the anti-alcoholic crusade. They can hardly be thought to be either fanatical or hysterical in their propaganda. You cannot question the honesty or disinterestedness of their motives. If however you find here and there some dissenting voice, that of some university professor perhaps, you may be sure that it is not that of a person with medical experience or any one familiar with the material which all may read, but rather the voice of someone perversely interested. You might well question whether such an one is simply seeking sensational exploitation of himself or whether he might not even be subsidized by the vast commercial interests at stake, for you must remember that the annual consumption of alcoholic drinks in the United States is over a billion gallons.

The alcohol problem is so interwoven with our whole modern life, with politics, with industries, with government revenues, as a source of wealth, etc., that it affords matter for many sided discussion. But here we are only concerned with public health, and it is from that standpoint that I present the subject to you. I believe that human evolution has now reached the stage when the abolition of the use of alcohol as a beverage is expected and required. Abstinence is one of the principles of human eugenics, that new science that is just being born.

There is no one here present that would feed alcohol to his dogs, horses, sheep or cattle. These possessions are too precious for that. He is too interested in improving their breed. He would recall Prof. Hodge's experiment with alcoholized dogs in which among twenty-three pups born in four litters to one pair of alcoholized dogs, nine were born dead, eight were deformed and only four apparently normal. Our best method of eradicating the alcoholic evil is that of a campaign of education. Every man, woman and child should be made familiar in one way or another with what is known by the medical profession of the ravages of alcohol. The main facts in some brief form should be brought home to them. For instance in Paris they put up a poster in every public hospital ward and on every prescription blank of their hospitals and dispensaries they print the following:

"Alcoholism: Its Dangers.

"Alcoholism is the chronic poisoning which results from the habitual use of alcohol, even if not used to the extent of producing drunkenness. It is an error to say that alcohol is necessary to laborers occupied with fatiguing work, that it gives heart for work or renews their strength; the artificial excitement produced by it rapidly gives place to nervous depression and weakness. In reality alcohol has no actual use for any one.

"The habit of drinking strong liquors leads rapidly to alcoholism; but the drinks called hygienic (in France) also contain alcohol, the difference being only in the dose. The man who drinks daily an immoderate quantity of wine, cider or beer becomes alcoholic also, as well as he who drinks the stronger liquors.

"The drinks labelled as aperitive (in France) such as absinthe, vermouth and bitters, and the aromatic liquors, are more pernicious because they contain in addition to alcohol, essences which are themselves also violent poisons.

"The habit of drinking leads to family disaffection, the forgetting of all social obligations, disgust with work, pauperism, theft and crime. This habit leads ultimately to the hospital, for alcoholism engenders the most various and destructive diseases—paralysis, insanity, disorders of the stomach and liver, and dropsy. It is one of the most frequent causes of tuberculosis. Furthermore, it complicates and aggravates acute diseases; typhoid fever, pneumonia, erysipelas, which run benignly in a sober man quickly kill the drinker.

"The faults of the parents fall upon their children. If these live beyond the first months, they are menaced with idiocy, epilepsy or later fall victims to tuberculosis, meningitis or consumption.

"For the health of the individual, for the existence of the family, for the future of the country, alcoholism is one of the most terrible dangers."

These statements of the French hospital posters could be made even more brief as I have myself made them for use on my own prescription blanks as follows:

Alcohol is a poison.

It is claimed by some that alcohol is a food. If so, it is a poisonous food. The daily regular use of alcohol, even in moderation, often leads to chronic alcoholism.

One is poisoned less rapidly by the use of beer than by drinking wines, gin, whiskey and brandy.

Alcohol is one of the most common causes of insanity, epilepsy, paralysis, diseases of the liver and stomach, dropsy and tuberculosis.

A father or mother who drinks poisons the children born to them, so that many die in infancy, while others grow up as idiots and epileptics.

These go but a little way to be sure, but if the 132,000 physicians in the United States could be induced to do likewise, they might help a little to persuade some of the 198,669 saloon keepers, bartenders, brewers, maltsters, distillers and rectifiers in this country of the harmfulness of their trades.

Somewhere in one of his books Maeterlinck observes that if the human race were to give up meat and alcohol there would no longer be hungry people. At any rate a study of the twelfth census of the United States for 1900 is an interesting commentary upon Maeterlinck's suggestion. I find there among the "industry groups ranked by capital" after iron and steel and their products, the textiles, lumber and its manufacture, and paper and printing, that the industries of food and kindred products are capitalized at \$938,000,000 and those of liquors and beverages at \$534,000,000. It is easy to see that if the \$938,000,000 capital in the food industry can supply the greater part of the food necessary for our nation's use, the \$534,000,000 of capital worse than wasted on the industries of poisonous drinks might well feed all the hungry and still leave a handsome surplus.

DR. GOLER: It occurred to me while Dr. Peterson was reading his paper that France has a low birth rate and a large army. France needs soldiers for her army, and consequently she has a care for her boys. We in America import our mothers.

As an announcement let me say that each one of the gentlemen who was to have opened the discussion upon this paper and the two papers following has regretted it, for one reason or another; so I will throw open the discussion, and make it general at the end of the last paper.

Continuing the report of the committee, I ask your attention to what is known as the blindness of the new-born, ophthalmia neonatorum. To the ophthalmia of the new-born, a specific contagious

disease, always due to infection of the child's eyes in its passage through the birth canal, we ask your earnest attention both because it is a serious disease in itself, causing from one-fifth to one-fourth of all the blindness in America (and there are 60,000 blind), and because this subject is intended by the committee to furnish a basis for public discussion upon the question of sexual hygiene at future conferences. All the thousands of little blind babies owe their blindness to gonorrhœa, contracted by the father before marriage, and the mother infected by the father becomes the innocent cause of her baby's blindness. This blindness of the new born is always preventable, even when the mother is infected. It remains for future conferences to determine whether knowledge concerning this disease shall be brought to the attention of boys and girls, and measures adopted for its prevention. Dr. F. Park Lewis will speak for a few moments upon that subject this evening, illustrating his discussion by lantern slides.

(Dr. Lewis exhibited and explained by means of lantern slides, photographs and tables dealing with this subject.)

CHAIRMAN GOLER: What is to be done about this? — a special committee has taken up this question of the prevention of unnecessary blindness. P. Tecumseh Sherman, as the chairman of the committee, has employed one man, an expert in this matter, to give it all the study he can. But doctors and societies are not going to do this work. Like many other good works, it must be done by the women. When women shall take up this question of ophthalmia of infancy, it shall cease, and the annual burden of thousands of dollars will be taken from the state. Secretary Lewis has some announcements to make.

SECRETARY LEWIS: The secretary made some announcements in relation to the program together with the the following committees:

COMMITTEE ON ORGANIZATION — Edmond J. Butler, chairman; Lee K. Frankel, Charles D. Hilles, E. H. Howard, Mrs. J. Sloat Fassett, Judge Lewis, Prof. Frank A. Fetter.

COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS — Robert W. Heberd; James Wood, Abram J. Katz.

COMMITTEE ON TIME AND PLACE — Daniel Sheehan, chairman; R. W. Hill, George Robinson, Dr. Max Landsberg, Porter R. Lee.

CHAIRMAN GOLER (continuing report of the committee on public health, read as follows):

The majority of your committee were in attendance at the recent International Congress on Tuberculosis, where the dominant note in all that great discussion was the prevention of tuberculosis. In the prevention of tuberculosis, light, air, decent habitation, a living wage, personal hygiene, the teeth, nose, throat, received that attention which such subjects demand, and out of it all came the thought that the poor, rather than the well-to-do, suffer most from tuberculosis, and the great trouble with the poor is poverty. The poor have consumption, not the rich; for, as Mr. Dooley says, "sickness is one of the privileges of the poor." The poor consumptive cannot take the advice of Celsus, "catch a cow and go and live in the mountains." They have no money to buy cows, and if they could get a cow, it would probably have tuberculosis when they bought it. The truth is we are a nation of nostrum takers. We employ policemen to arrest the criminal that society makes. We employ health officers to institute useless quarantines and spread broadcast disinfectants against the disease for which society is responsible. When will the policeman be a teacher? When will the health officer be a teacher? "For the public health is the foundation on which reposes the happiness of the people, and the power of the country, the care of the public health is the first duty of statesmen."

We have with us a gentleman who comes from New York City to speak on the subject before us to-night, the subject of the prevention of tuberculosis, and I have the pleasure and honor of introducing Dr. Livingston Farrand, who is secretary of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis.

DR. LIVINGSTON FARRAND: I have been asked to speak very briefly upon a specific program for the prevention of tuberculosis, and that I am particularly glad to do in this conference of those who must deal with this question hand to hand, and upon whom the responsibility at present must fall, for the reason we have been learning very fast in the past few years, and I feel we have made many mistakes in our method of operation. Experience has shown we have begun our attack on the tuberculosis problems in many ways at the wrong end. Therefore, if I may confine my remarks to outlining a campaign against tuberculosis, that is what I wish.

I do not wish to present any remarks on the gravity of the evil. It seems to me all question of economics and the other questions fall into insignificance when compared with those of preventing and treating tuberculosis. One of our leading social economists, one of the most conservative, put the cost of this disease at \$400,000,000 a year to humanity. It is easy to calculate how that burden falls upon each community, even a community like this, where you have a death rate from tuberculosis which, in dollars and cents, costs this community at least from one hundred to two hundred thousand dollars a year; and a very small fraction of that money, if spent properly on the prevention of this disease, would yield results not to be measured. Now the basis of the entire campaign against tuberculosis is the logical corollary of the discoveries, pathological and clinical, during the past twenty-five years. The question is, how are we to prevent it? We must first destroy the cause. But there is also to be considered the ability of individuals to resist its attack in certain cases. That is a matter of observation and of experience. Now then our efforts, if we are to control the disease at all, must be directed along those two lines; that is, we must attempt to eliminate the centers of affection and increase the resisting power of individuals. This last mentioned measure is one that calls for all the methods of co-operation included under the general terms of this Conference. It is what comes under "increased standards of living."

Now, it goes without saying that this is a vital aspect of the entire campaign against tuberculosis. But here is the somewhat more definite attack on the centers of affection to be considered, and the important procedure necessary to get at the cause. We are now agreed, I think, in this campaign — those engaged professionally in this work — that there are certain features which are indispensable. They are, first, registration of cases, adequate dispensary equipment and adequate provision for dealing with advanced cases, enforcement of anti-spitting ordinances, and other regulations which bear directly on this question as much as better living and better working conditions for the people generally. That is, to bring about such laws as will secure a better standard of living and consequent higher resisting capacity in the individual. Now, in bringing about these results, there is one thesis upon which I desire to lay emphasis, and that is this: We are bound to place the responsibility for the campaign of tuberculosis squarely upon the shoulders of the local authorities. I mean, first

the local and then the state and national. We are never going to fight tuberculosis efficiently until we take up the fight in our own communities, and we must bend every effort to bring about a realization of the responsibilities in the minds of the public officials of our different localities. Unfortunately, we have in the nation very few health officers like our chairman of this division to-night. He has long tried to bring about this realization. In this connection, I would say that it is important that this showing made here is with private measures of private associations, which are all to be regarded as temporary expedients. They are not to be regarded as final methods which we are to trust in accomplishing the things we have in view. Now, with our political organization such as it is, it is impossible to attack this disease in its recognized stronghold by means of the national government. I have every sympathy with the movement carried forward with some prospect of immediate success, the movement for a National Department of Health. I believe it is greatly needed to-day. But I do not believe any national bureau of health could cope successfully with tuberculosis. I believe its chief function would be an educational one. It might be a co-ordinate one. It might be that matters of infection in transportation, where the Interstate Commerce Commission could act in time, might be of use.

We find the chief value of state government is the passage of certain efficient laws which enable localities to deal efficiently with their problem. There is also a decided educational function resting in the state boards of health, and I am proud to say that the educational campaign of the State Board of Health in regard to tuberculosis in this state has been about the best in the United States. It is seen in the exhibition in this building to-night.

A direct campaign on the part of the state would be efficient. What are we to do with institutions such as state sanatoria? The establishment of a state sanatoria at Raybrook as a means of combating tuberculosis is radical; but the only thing that can reach such a situation as we have is to provide for these patients in their own locality, which places the responsibility for that care squarely on the shoulders of those charged with the local government. Now there is to-day, of course, an axiom that tuberculosis is a social disease, a disease of housing and of local environment. If we are to make the fight on these lines, what is to be our specific program of operation? To my mind it is this — and I say it as the result of the campaigns carried on in several hundred of the cities of the United States — I would say in a

specific program of operation, the first point to be looked at — and I think this applies particularly to Elmira, where the campaign is being inaugurated now — the first thing is to gather accurate knowledge of the situation. No board of health, no commission, no committee, would deal intelligently with the problems unless they know the problems; and one of the most important facts is the compulsory registration of tuberculosis cases. It does not mean that the records placed with the department of health must be open to public inspection, but it means that the department of health must know where each case is. If the case is being looked after properly by the family physician, then the board or commission has no action to take; if such is not the case, then the board should take proper steps to protect the community; and in order to bring this about, compulsory registration is necessary, and the legislature of New York state this last year provided by statute for this compulsory registration.

Second, and most important from the practical and remedial point of view, there must be particular provision for the care of the consumptives under these heads and points and in the order of importance. I recognize that many might take issue with me, but I think this is the proper order:

First of all, adequate provision for the care of advanced and hopeless patients. The shocking lack of provision for advanced cases, which are constant menaces and a constant source of affection, is most noticeable, and yet we have no means to care for indigent cases of that kind. The first thing Elmira should do is to provide for these advanced cases of indigent persons. I do not care whether it is done by an independent hospital, or in the work incidental to an existing hospital, provided it is done on a scale which will take care of all those cases of tuberculosis that cannot be properly cared for in their homes.

Second in importance, the need of the present day calls for adequate dispensary equipment for several reasons: First, to enable an early diagnosis to be made of tuberculosis in those cases where the people are not able to call in competent physicians; the early diagnosis to be made in such a way as to restore the patient to health as soon as possible, and therefore to his wage-earning capacity. I am speaking, not through philanthropy, but from the business point, the viewpoint of common sense. And along with the ability of the dispensary to make an early diagnosis comes the invaluable opportunity for educational work with the patient and with his family. The education should be carried

throughout the family by the visiting nurse, who gives information regarding a few simple facts to the members of the community where it is most needed — to the members of the family of the consumptive who are open to infection.

Third, there must be some provision for home treatment, either in connection with the dispensary or otherwise, for those patients who cannot be treated in hospitals, and under this heading or department there should be provision for sanitary care. I said that we had taken up the campaign in some features from the wrong end. I meant then that heretofore emphasis had been laid on the sanatorium idea. We have had agitation for local, state and private sanatoria of all kinds; and I mean to say that in placing emphasis on the sanatorium aspect of the tuberculosis problem we have overlooked the advanced cases, and early diagnosis of the incipient cases, that are much more important than the sanatorium itself.

It is easy to go before the Legislature or to arouse the interest of the philanthropist in restoring the wage-earner to an earning basis; and in our enthusiasm we have neglected these other aspects, and we are just beginning to get a proper provision for dispensary treatment.

I think it can be safely said that the sanatorium question, with the initial momentum given in this country, can now be left to itself. It is, relatively, at the present time, less important than the provisions for treatment of advanced cases and dispensary equipment for diagnosis in incipient cases.

Third, in the program of any local campaign there should be the education of the community. After all, the whole problem of tuberculosis prevention is reduced to the education of the community to a few simple facts, namely, that tuberculosis is infectious; that the disease is preventable; that it is curable. If we can bring those facts home to the community, we shall in the end accomplish that which we have set out to do, because with a thorough impregnation of the public mind with the knowledge of these facts, and then the observation of the rules that are the result of them, we shall accomplish the end. The Legislature should lend its co-operation in every direct effort for such hygienic efforts of reform as bear on this problem. I mean that all the movements for the betterment of living, and the betterment of working laws and for better school inspection, and our pure food laws, that all of them contribute to this particular phase which is

the topic to-night. If we can get an organized effort, bringing in all the forces of the community and direct it to this end, and if these points are kept in mind as the essential difficulties in the local program, I venture to say that the next twenty years will see a drop in the curve of death rates from tuberculosis which while not as great will be comparable to that of the last twenty years.

CHAIRMAN GOLER: The papers are now open for general discussion — the paper on alcoholism by Dr. Peterson, ophthalmia neonatorum by Dr. Lewis and the paper you have just heard by Dr. Farrand. Is there anyone in this Conference largely composed of special workers, who wishes to discuss any one of these papers? The discussion is limited to five minutes. As no one seems to offer any discussion, Mr. Rosendale, the president, will now preside.

MR. ROSENDALE: The business of the Conference for this evening having now closed, the Rev. Dr. White will pronounce the benediction.

REV. DR. WHITE: May the blessing of Almighty God, the Father, the Son and the Holy Ghost, descend upon you and remain with you forever.

WEDNESDAY MORNING, NOVEMBER 18, 1908.

PROGRAM.

- 9:30 A. M. Business.
- 10:00 A. M. Report of the Committee on the Standard of Living. Chairman, Frederic Almy, Secretary Charity Organization Society, Buffalo, N. Y.
- 10:20 A. M. Standards of Living in Buffalo, by John R. Howard, head worker at Welcome Hall, Buffalo, N. Y.
- 10:40 A. M. Discussion. Opened by Prof. Frank R. Fetter of Cornell University.
- 10:50 A. M. General discussion.
- 11:10 A. M. Remedies for Too Low a Standard of Living, by Edward T. Devine, general secretary of the Charity Organization Society, New York City.
- 11:30 A. M. Discussion. Opened by Dr. Walter Weyl, New York City.
- 11:40 A. M. General discussion.

PRESIDENT ROSENDALE: This morning it is very easy to see the next step in the program. The standard of living will be taken up. It has a very important and very intimate bearing upon fortifying the individual against disease. I therefore take pleasure in turning this meeting over to Frederic Almy, secretary of the Charity Organization Society of Buffalo, who will read the report of the committee.

MR. FREDERIC ALMY (Session Chairman): I have the honor to present as the report of the Committee on Standard of Living the following paper on

The Ethics of Too Low a Standard of Living.

The Standard of Living section of this Conference opened its first session two years ago with a valuable address from Mr. Tucker as chairman. At the Conference last year it was continued with instructions "to conclude its work and report in such manner as the Executive Committee may determine." If our report to-day is a conclusion, it is one which concludes nothing. There is no end to this topic, or to the upward progress of the standard of living of unskilled labor, which to-day, even at its worst, is as far ahead of the last century as it is behind the coming standard which the new wealth of the world and its new fraternity will give the laborer. If the standard to-day is intolerable and a menace, the

fact that it is better than in the past does not justify us. There are no castes in this country, and every man should try to give his children a better standard than his own. If he does not try, a little compulsion can be applied, through tenement laws and other legislation the opposite of sumptuary, which require more spending rather than less. All standards change — standards of decency and standards of public morality, as well as of living — and the public conscience is now so sensitized by our universal press that there is a growing feeling that low standards of living are as injurious to the country at large as unsanitary conditions or excessive hours of labor. We have a conscience toward bad conditions but not as yet toward low wages.

The present result of the inquiry of this committee is that a proper and safe standard of living cannot be maintained on the wages commonly received by the great bulk of our day laborers. Dr. Frankel reported last year that \$650 a year or \$54 a month was wholly inadequate for a family of five in New York City, and that no self-respecting family should be expected to live on it; that \$750 a year, or \$62.50 a month, would barely serve if there was exceptional management with no waste or emergency; and that \$825 per year, or \$68.75 per month was sufficient for a fairly proper standard. The figures for Buffalo where rents are lower make \$60 a month necessary for decent maintenance for a family of six. We shall have more to say of these figures, but we all know that unskilled labor, even when steadily employed without missing a day through sickness or weather, does not earn these sums. The reports arraign society, and claim that unskilled labor, not at its worst but at its very best, is underfed and in want of necessities because its wages are too low to buy them. Are social workers realizing that a wage on which decent subsistence is impossible is a condition intolerable but general, and if so what are they going to do about it, and how soon? Or is this a false alarm?

Thousands of laborers in all our cities are not only living happily but saving money on incomes below this standard, and the race does not seem to be deteriorating. The country minister, always with a large family, is fortunate if he has \$50 a month, promptly paid, and on this the poor man must maintain culture for his family as well as efficiency. It is not enough, however, to show that men are living and working without sickness on these low incomes. We all know that the hay fed horse,

though he does not sicken, will do better work on oats; and that in the underfed garden, though the flowers may not wither, manure will double the results. It may be that we are wasting human energy through a false system which needs reforming.

We heard the analysis last year of the cost of living in New York, and we shall hear presently the analysis for Buffalo. If the Conference had not limited the committee this year to a single locality you would have figures also for a typical smaller city, like Ithaca. At the Richmond National Conference last May a few of you heard Miss Claghorn's brilliant and caustic criticism of the value of such figures, as indications, straws merely, not demonstrations. She said emphatically that the factors in the problem were too indefinite to make the results reliable. Even as intelligent guesses, however, the results have value. Let us review them briefly. Two years ago Mr. Tucker, as chairman, told us that five social workers in New York casually undertook to reckon the cost for a normal standard of living for a man and three young children in that city. "The total when cast made each man and woman look at his neighbor and wonder if there was anything wrong with the figures." It was \$931 per annum. The question was then put to two groups "of the ablest social workers among dependent families in New York," women whose daily work it is to deal with these questions, and the figure submitted after study was \$950. The figure given by Miss Goodyear in her careful study was \$1,054. These were all *a priori*. So was John Mitchell's guess of \$600, not for New York or any large city, but for towns of from 5,000 to 100,000 population. The Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics said \$724. The New York Bureau of Labor \$520. Most of these estimates were at periods of lower prices and cost of living than now. In most of them also the estimates were based on wise buying, without waste. The cost of food, as coal for the human furnace, was figured chemically by experts like Dr. Atwater of the United States Department of Agriculture. On the other hand, we have studies of the actual cost of living of real families, with all the elements of waste and mischance. Such studies were made by Eden in the eighteenth century, by Le Play and Engel, Booth and Rowntree in the nineteenth century; there was an extensive study of 2,567 families by the United States commissioner of labor in 1903; of 200 families in New York by Greenwich House in 1906; and we have now the family budgets analyzed by this committee. All these

are reviewed and compared in Miss More's WAGE EARNERS' BUDGETS.

The studies of this committee have been among the independent poor, not accepting charity, with incomes of from \$600 to \$900. They have tried to show just what such incomes buy. To the results of this inquiry in individual families, Miss Claghorn's strictures do not apply. It is the generalizations which she discredits. It would be an interesting study for a future paper to take families with an income of less than \$600 and show what such incomes buy and also what they do not buy. Miss Goodyear's budget of \$831, spent by a tailor and wife with four children, includes a daily paper, but we learn that the rent, \$15, was for a damp, ground floor room and that two years later the father died of heart failure due to rheumatism, leaving his family to be supported by charity. A paper emphasizing the defects and omissions of some \$500 budgets would make it more clear that such incomes, which are still general, are a social danger.

An interesting use of these studies, not yet developed, is as a measure of relief. Any relief committee considering the support of a family needs to know what it should cost it to live decently. After figuring a budget for the cost of living, the earning power can be deducted, and the rest should be provided through relatives or charity. The relief plus the earnings (actual or possible) should equal the budget. In estimating such a budget we almost guess the cost of living. Of the main items of relief, food, rent and coal, the latter two are somewhat definite. For food we may, perhaps, consider that we have a gauge in the \$1.50 per week per man, which is the cost in the families found by Prof. Underhill to have food enough to maintain physical efficiency. Then if we use the accepted ratios of Atwater (Dietary Studies in New York City in 1895 and 1896 by W. O. Atwater and Chas. D. Woods)—women, .8; boy, 16 to 14 years, .8; girl, 16 to 14 years, .7; child, 13 to 10 years, .6; child, 9 to 6 years, .5; child, 5 to 2 years, .3; child, under 2, .2—we can find the number of units in the family and a cost per week for food. A registrar at the central office can easily figure these sums for each district committee. Of course rents differ in different places, and prices of food in different years, but some central expert authority can give up always the best figures attainable. This Conference would do well through larger study to fix standards with more precision. Guesses or not, they are guesses based on effort to learn the facts,

and so better than guesses unsupported, which we must use otherwise.

Whether the relief should be adequate according to the standard so found when that standard is above the customs and habits of the family, raises interesting questions. When a man dies and leaves his family dependent many will doubt whether the family should be supported on a better scale than when he was living, or than their neighbors have, even though the living which they have had is inadequate for decent maintenance. But where a family becomes the ward of charity it may be considered in the same case as orphan children or delinquent children, who receive better shelter, food and care as wards of charity than in their own homes. Where the responsibility of support falls upon a charitable society it should be able to do a better job than the ignorant, illiterate immigrant who may have been the father of the family. We know, as he does not, the evil consequences of inadequate maintenance. Of course adequate relief should be limited to responsive families who will profit by it and not abuse it. If there is a partial support from the family or from relatives the same principle might apply. It will not do to let adequate relief merely relax the contributions of the family. Charity helps those who help themselves.

The mention of relief leads us to further questions. Often the standard of living which needs to be raised is as much below the income as the income is below a proper standard of living. We see families spending money to pay a mortgage, or wasting money in drink or idleness, whose standing of living is intolerable. If you give a Polish family an American pension they will put half of it in the savings bank. Where a family has a standard even below its insufficient wage it is plain that mere relief will not raise it. That way danger lies.

We have two distinct questions. What can we do to raise the standard of wages? What can we do to raise the standard of living? The questions are independent but closely related. Because a very small income and an unsatisfactory life go together, people conclude that if they can increase the income the life will become satisfactory. Increase of income, unless it is accompanied by an improved standard of life, is mischievous. (Mrs. Bosanquet, *The Standard of Life*, p. 48.)

Each factor in this problem reacts upon the other. We know Rowntree's vicious circle of poverty. "Unfitness means low wages,

low wages mean insufficient food, insufficient food means unfitness for work, so that the vicious circle is complete," and unfitness seems unescapable (p. 46). Consider, however, the converse of this. Increased income, through wise relief, means better food and quarters; these mean better strength and courage; these mean better income; and now instead of the endless chain of poverty we have the endless chain of progress. And mere relief without education or legislation, mere despised relief can do this trick. Mere courage or exhortation, without relief, can sometimes do it. If a man can pluck up courage, or through some of the helping hands or helping agencies that now extend all around the horizon, can have courage breathed into him, to make a fresh spurt, to get a better job, the better income will give him better vigor for a still better job. *Possunt quia posse videntur* — they can because they think they can — is as true to-day as in Virgil's time.

This is what Prof. Patten calls expression instead of repression, what Mrs. Bosanquet calls "the strength of the people;" what Chalmers calls "an aggressive policy" toward the poor. It is Dr. Weyl's message (which you will hear presently) of the gospel of bathtubs and warm underwear in place of the gospel of abnegation and saving. Their *Verdammte Bedürfnisslosigkeit* is the chief curse of the poor. To want more and want it more is a long step toward having more. "There is no limit to the ingenuity and persistence with which men will pursue their interests when once they have been fairly aroused," says Mrs. Bosanquet (*Strength of the People*, p. 99). Discontent is a good gospel, even if the wants aroused are physical.

We must remember, however, that the standard of living is spiritual as well as material. "For increase of happiness, it is poverty of interests which must be removed, and for this purpose a mere accession of wealth is no guarantee." (*Strength of the People*, p. 83.) Father Plater says well in a recent article (*A Great Social Experiment*. The Hibbert Journal, Oct. 1908): "The inadequacy of much of our social work lies in this — It tends to raise the standard of comfort rather than of character — The change is applied from without, not educed from within. It reminds us of the gardener in Alice in Wonderland who painted the white roads red."

If discontent seems dangerous preaching, suppose we look at the danger of satisfaction with things as they are. The story of insufficient wages and living in New York and Buffalo may seem

excessive, but it does not approach the similar story told by Charles Booth of London or Rowntree of York. In York, a city of only 80,000, where "nearly every family lives in a separate house" (p. 146), so that there is no acute congestion, Rowntree finds in his notable book that forty-three per cent. of the wage-earning class and twenty-eight per cent. of the whole population live in poverty. Poverty, he defines, as failure to maintain mere physical efficiency. Booth gives similar figures for London.

W. B. Morrison, writing of juvenile offenders, says that "industrial school boys of fourteen are nearly seven inches shorter and twenty-three and three-fourths pounds lighter than boys of the same age in the general population" (quoted in *Strength of the People*, p. 65). Rowntree, examining 1,919 school children, found that boys of thirteen were eleven pounds lighter and three and a half inches shorter in the poorest than in the best section of laboring families. Prof. Nitti tells us that "an American eats more and better than a German or a Frenchman or an Englishman, and works more and better than any of them." (*The Food and Labor Power of Nations*, *Economic Journal*, March, 1896.)

Stunted vitality yields easily to disease, to vice and to ignorance, the chief causes of pauperism. As some big, tenement-bred Italians in Buffalo said, "When we are sick, we die quick." It is poor national economy not to keep the producing class up to its best efficiency. A slave-holder will keep his slaves well housed and fed for the best physical results to him in labor, without much thought of the gain also in character. With universal suffrage, we need good maintenance for its effects on character as well as on labor.

Much can be done to improve the standard of living in a home by education of the mother in regard to the purchase and preparation of food that is nutritious and yet not costly. The same cost for food will give very different results where such education is given, and in this way the standard of living can be considerably raised without an increase of wages. In many cities education in this direction is now given. Valuable information on this subject can be found in Lomb's prize essay on *Practical Sanitary and Economic Cooking*, published by the American Public Health Association.

Our national wealth increases with leaps and bounds, and the scientific discoveries and the co-operative economies which are the chief cause of this new wealth are still in their infancy. Even

with our present distribution, the wages of labor increase and its proportionate share of the produce increases, so that labor grows daily more comfortable. But it is not good housekeeping to be satisfied so long as labor does not have such a wage and such a standard of living as will develop its best efficiency. At present the low wages, the long hours, the unhealthful and dangerous conditions of labor are breeding pauperism, disease and crime, with their by-products of widowhood, orphanage and intemperance. The poverty which results from this is, to a large degree, preventable.

We may paraphrase one of the slogans of the brilliant tuberculosis crusade as follows:

Poverty is a communicable disease.

Poverty is a curable disease.

Poverty is a preventable disease.

It is also an abominable disease, in its cruelty and in its evils, and if it can be cured and prevented it must be. A successful attack on low standards and low wages would do much to reduce its dimensions.

The suggestion of an attack on low wages as well as on low standards brings us back to the words of Mr. Tucker at our opening session in 1906: "Poverty is detrimental to the general welfare. Therefore, society, which pays the bill for poverty, has the right to say whether poverty that is preventable shall continue to exist. And if a cause of preventable poverty is the exploitation of labor, as Dr. Frankel says it is, it is the right of society to say to the employer: 'You are not obliged to employ any man or woman, but if you do, you must pay him a living wage for a given day's work and you must permit him to work under proper conditions.' Society has been quick to exact laws for the protection of physical property and dumb animals, but against the destruction of human beings by all the subtle causes growing out of sub-normal standard of living there is little or no protection as yet. The cause is not difficult to find; we hold human life too cheap and we pay the bill for its destruction by subtle causes too indirectly. At the same time society has the right to say, and does say, to the employee, 'You must live in a way that is not detrimental to the general good.'"

Mr. Tucker then goes on to suggest the possibility of a minimum wage law in this country, with a penalty at law for employers who engage labor at less than this legal wage. Such a law would not

be new in the world. There has been a minimum wage law in Victoria for twelve years (1896) and the plan has extended to New Zealand and most of the colonies of Australia. Prof. Seligman of Columbia tells us (*Principles of Economics*, 1907) that the system "has on the whole worked satisfactorily," and that "it may well be that similar methods will ultimately be found necessary here," though he speaks of the risk with our interstate and foreign competition. There is some precedent also in this country and in England, where many municipalities have fixed a minimum wage for city laborers or for laborers employed by any contractors who are doing work for the city. There is clamor now by capital against such laws, but it makes a difference whose ox is gored, and it is interesting to recall that when the boot was on the other leg, in the fourteenth century just after the Black Plague, the few survivors demanded higher wages, and the English government then passed the Statutes of Laborers which fixed a maximum rate of wages and made it a penal offense for a laborer to accept more or for an employer to offer more.

Whether such statutes, minimum or maximum, are effective, is disputed, but the claim that higher wages all around would so raise prices that the workman would not be benefited is well parried by John Mitchell with the remark that in that case lower wages all around would so lower wages that the workman would not suffer, and that he would be as well off without any wages at all.

In the skilled trades, organized labor has of course raised wages and shortened hours, and both have helped to raise the standard of living in these trades. In those unions which are organized upon industrial rather than trades lines, such as the United Mine Workers of America, with over 300,000 members, of which Mr. Mitchell was until lately president, every man or boy working about the mines, from engineer to barn man, is eligible, so that in such unions unskilled labor also profits.

Under the wage fund theory there was just so much to divide, and if labor got more, profits must get less. The iron law of wages said that wages could not be raised if prices did not allow it. Organized labor now says to the employer successfully: We will not take less than a living wage, and you must recognize this before recklessly reducing prices. And the paradox results that the best employers can meet the situation by improved methods, and the better fed and better rested workmen do better work, so that the new output is enough for all on the new scale. It is the

old proof that men respond to good living conditions as profitably to the employer as crops do to manure for the intelligent owner.

Unorganized labor, however, is a perishable commodity, and has no such standing with capital. As Prof. Hadley puts it: "When a capitalist who has money buys labor from a man who has none, the result cannot possibly be fair to the latter. The capitalist can wait. The laborer must work on the capitalist's terms or starve."

Organized labor scores heavily for a better standard of living in reducing the working day. Society has never followed the labor movement for higher wages and shorter hours with such general approval as it has the movement for better living and working conditions, through tenement and tuberculosis work, and through laws for better sanitation and safety appliances in factories. One reason is, no doubt, as Mrs. Bosanquet has suggested (*Strength of the People*, p. 285) that good conditions cannot be turned to evil by the recipient while higher wages and shorter hours may be and often are used for dissipation. Our faith in democracy is the answer to this objection. Money and leisure are a temptation, but as John Mitchell puts it: "If the American workman can be entrusted with the suffrage it is certainly safe to entrust him with a few hours of leisure" (p. 125). Here are one or two more of Mr. Mitchell's trenchant sentences. He speaks of the joy of labor that comes with shorter hours and better work, and says that "skilled workmen often derive more pleasure from their work than from their recreation" (p. 433). Of the minimum wage he says that "Trade unionism will make the competition among workingmen one of efficiency and not of cheapness" (p. 432). Again, "It is only where labor is dear and the product of labor cheap that a high state of civilization is possible" (p. 431).

The bottom idea of the whole labor union movement is better standards of living for working men. Social workers have not allied themselves as they should with this movement for the furtherance of such ends as they have in common, and perhaps the unionists also have had a wrong idea of the meaning of modern charity. For better acquaintance and fellowship Mr. Mitchell was asked to take part in this program, but on account of his absence in Denver he named as his representative Dr. Walter Weyl, who collaborated with him in the writing of his book.

Since the *laissez-faire* system (called by some the "let-her-rip" system) became discredited, social legislation of the paternal sort has concerned itself partly with the protection of the consumer, through consumers' leagues to guard against contagion, through

quarantine laws and pure food laws, but with reference to the employed its scope is becoming almost universal. We have legislation to guard his health, his safety, his hours, his wages, his savings, his old age, and his employment. In a paper read last December in Madison at the first annual meeting of the American Association for Labor Legislation, Prof. Seager of Columbia suggested laws covering all these points.

In regard to trades unions Prof. Seager advocated "having the right kind of unions directed by the right kind of leaders subsidized by the government, as has been done by some Belgian cities, to look after the unemployed in their respective trades." At the first session of this Standard of Living committee Father White of Brooklyn said that "the importance of rationally conducted labor unions cannot be minimized."

In the annals of the American Academy for July, 1908, Prof. Patten of the University of Pennsylvania restated his buoyant doctrine of the age of surplus following the age of deficit, and of the waning of poverty. "Primitive justice," he says, "demands the giving up of all we have for the poor; economic justice consists not in giving up positions of advantage, but in creating similar positions of advantage for other people. It is only the extension of opportunity, the growth of efficiency, the spread of knowledge, and the increase of health that can cause poverty to disappear and give a secure income to every family." Both Prof. Seager and Prof. Patten were asked in vain to write papers for this session.

Our social legislation calls for faith in regard to its effects. Take the anti-sumptuary legislation in regard to tenements which requires landlords to spend more and tenants to pay more. It is certain that it increases the cost of living for the poor; it is doubtful whether it increases their wages at all; it may be that it reduces the size of families; it must be that it increases their efficiency; and so the total output which is the wealth of the world. Take the laws which regulate the cheap lodging-houses (now occupied by the very dregs of humanity), and which double the price of a lodging. We can only trust in the gradual power of environment. If you keep the sty clean you will keep the pig clean, and the pig cannot help himself.

Much has been done already. In the case of children, for instance, we read that so late as 1830 the almshouses of London got rid of their children of five and six years by sending them in wagon loads to manufacturing towns where they were bound out to labor until they were twenty-one, at fourteen, fifteen and even

sixteen hours a day. (Strength of the People, p. 155.) In one case an employer contracted to help out the almshouse by taking one idiot child for each twenty sane children (Mitchell, p. 24). A "half-timer" in those days was a child who was fortunate enough to work in the mills for only nine hours and at school for two. The "progressive deterioration" caused by child labor is now fast being curbed. The chivalry which used to protect the persons of women and children now protects their labor.

We have gained in wages. The skilled laborer often outearns the college graduates. There are Harvard graduates of ability and industry who can look with envy on the four dollars a day of a plasterer or a plumber.

It is well not to be impatient. We all remember the eager reformer who cried out: "The trouble is that God is not in a hurry and I am." It is well also not to be satisfied with mere progress. Our steadily progressive standards of decency demand steadily progressive standards of living, which

Not content that former good stands fast,
Move forward, persevering to the last,
From well to better, daily self-surpassed.

The fight is on, all along the line, and many are helping. There is no panacea for our trouble. The problem is one of general social reconstruction, and the remedy is neither education, legislation nor agitation, but all three. We need to get together all our forces. With Roosevelt we must seek "to make the unemployed more employable." With the socialists we must seek to give the poor not alms but opportunity, so that hereafter opportunity will be democratic instead of hereditary. Modern charity workers certainly have no wish to subsidize poverty, and with the gift of opportunity we shall be able to take a more drastic course with the wilful poor, the poor who are poor from choice because they prefer indulgence to effort. The tuberculosis crusade has shown what social workers can do when they are aroused. In that campaign facts have become acts and the enemy is being routed. Dr. Devine, who has led in that fight, will tell us next what we can do to remedy low standards of living, and there are many who will be keen to follow his telling with active effort. We need to focus public attention not only upon the condition but upon the remedies. If it is true that hard day labor by willing but unskilled men does not ensure tolerable living, we need to make a change. Prudence requires it, for, as has been said, the disease of poverty is communicable

in the human family. Charity requires it. And religion requires it if the brotherhood of man is to be anything more than a joke.

This session will be continued by John R. Howard, the head worker at Welcome Hall in Buffalo, who will present a paper on Standards of Living in Buffalo, similar to that given in New York City last year by Dr. Frankel. I have been warned that we must keep to our schedule and each paper must be limited to the appointed time, and the opening discussion to be ten minutes; and I wish to say that I shall use this death watch to keep the session to that schedule. Mr. Howard will now address you.

MR. HOWARD: The Committee on the Standard of Living is not responsible for the opinions expressed in this paper; they are responsible for asking me to give expression to the facts to the Conference. The investigation into the cost of living in Buffalo was limited to 100 families, partly because the appropriation was one-tenth of that for the New York study, partly because three summer months admitted of no more, and partly in the belief that 100 families, selected with care and interviewed by as few investigators as possible, would yield more accurate results than a larger number selected at random and interviewed by an army of untrained investigators. Miss Emma O. Lundberg, master of arts in the University of Wisconsin, and highly recommended by Prof. Ross of that institution, who was chosen to execute the work, gathered her own facts from fifty-one of the 100 families; thirty of the families of foreign birth were interviewed by three women peculiarly fitted by acquaintanceship and nationality, and the other nineteen by thirteen different men and women fitted, **most of them**, by long standing acquaintance with the families, and selected because of their intelligence.

We are not satisfied in Buffalo with the single standard set up by the New York investigation for all nationalities, and it was believed that the Poles, of whom we have about 75,000, and the Italians, of whom we have about 50,000, would show, and would require, a lower standard of life than the other, more Americanized people. It was, therefore, determined to select fifty families of various nationalities, twenty-five Polish and twenty-five Italian, believing that while these numbers were not sufficient accurately to define standards of life for these three types, that they would at least indicate prevailing differences, and taken together form

an adequate ground for comparison with the standard set up for New York by the committee last year.

Some wanted the investigation limited to families with incomes not exceeding \$500, supposed maximum of the average day laborer, in order to discover what he was able to provide for his family; but I believed that the investigation should include incomes large enough to provide the essentials of a proper standard of living, in order that we might know what the cost of such essentials were. Accordingly, the investigation was limited to families with incomes not exceeding \$700, a sum generally considered ample in Buffalo.

The procedure with respect to these families was similar to that in New York. The schedules were identical. It is not necessary, therefore, again to describe the questions asked under the several headings: Housing: fuel and light; furniture, insurance; food, clothing, taxes, dues and contributions; recreation and amusements, education and reading; and miscellaneous. I shall proceed immediately to a discussion of the results.

I have already indicated that twenty-five of the 100 families are Italians and twenty-five Polish. Of the other fifty, nineteen are Americans, thirteen Germans, five Irish, three Scotch, two English, two Canadians, two Swedish, one colored, one Dutch, one Austrian and one Romanian.

Among them are forty-two laborers, eight carpenters, three paperhangers, three moulders, three painters, three watchmen, three hackmen, two delivery men, two tailors, two gardeners and one each of twenty-seven other occupations.

The average income of the 100 families is \$600, and the average disbursement \$632. This discrepancy seems to be due more to the hard times than to a permanent inability to make ends meet. The largest part of it occurs in the Polish families, who have no idea how their money goes, and so are at a loss when to cut down when earnings are curtailed.

In twenty-nine per cent. of the 100 families, the mother adds to the income, the exception being, as would be supposed, the Italian families, where only one more adds to the income, and she by work in the country during the summer. There would undoubtedly have been more of this type had the investigation not been made in the summer, for hundreds of the low-waged Italians move to the canning districts with the spring.

Six per cent. of the families have lodgers and thirty-one per

cent. have incomes from children and other sources. It is in the Polish families that the man's earnings are most frequently supplemented, as indicated by the fact that the average income of the Polish families is \$604 while the average wage of a Polish man is \$422. In discussing the various expenditures of these families, I shall compare them with the seventy-two families of the \$600 to \$700 group in the New York study, the average disbursement of that group being \$650, where the average of the Buffalo families is \$632.

First, it should be pointed out that the New York families average five persons and the Buffalo families six. This in itself may indicate a less severe struggle for existence, though it may also be due to a difference in selection.

RENT.

The average amount paid for rent by the Buffalo family of six is \$8 a month. For this they obtain four rooms, with an average of one and one-half windows to a room, each opening upon the outer air. The New York families of five pay \$13 a month for three rooms, one of which is without access to the outer air. In Buffalo we came upon seven dark rooms, two of them alcoves of rooms with outside windows. These rooms have been reported to the Board of Health and will not be allowed to exist longer. In addition to this, half of the families live in one or two-family detached frame houses, with air space on four sides of them, and the other half live, for the most part, in houses called tenement-houses, only because there are three or more families in them. The typical Buffalo house is a two-story, frame, detached house, with a yard behind and a grass plot before. Almost any residence street on the East Side of Buffalo is superior in point of air-space, quietness, greenness and elbow room to the finest residence streets in Manhattan. The virtue not mentioned is clean air. Buffalo is a smoky city. Pictures of typical Buffalo houses will be found in the exhibit of town-planning, upstairs. The smokiness of the atmosphere is readily seen in some of these photographs.

There is overcrowding in Buffalo, but outside a few large tenement-houses it must all be done within detached houses, surrounded by ample air-space. There are, however, among the fifty Polish and Italian families of this study, thirteen families averaging five persons who live in two rooms, two of these families having seven persons; and there are twelve others aver-

aging six persons who live in three rooms, one a family of nine, and three others of seven persons.

The annual expenditure for furniture is \$7, \$1 more than in New York. When it is considered that this thirteen and one-half cents a week provides for all furniture and household and kitchen supplies, it is seen to be little enough. All large purchases must be made on the instalment plan, but there was very little of this last year because of the hard times, even those with normal earnings seeming to hold back for fear of mishap.

Twenty dollars is spent for insurance, but in Buffalo, as in New York, this is chiefly for life insurance, only thirteen of the families having property insured. Sixty-five per cent. of the 100 families are insured; out of the Italian families, only twenty-eight per cent. are insured; of the Polish families eighty-four per cent., and of the other fifty, seventy-four per cent.

Food.

In discussing the food item, I wish to point out that the average Buffalo family is 3.8 units, figuring an adult man as the unit and the mother and children in proportion thereto, while the average New York family, of the group before us, is 3.3.

In the New York investigation, 100 schedules were submitted to Dr. Frank P. Underhill, assistant professor of physiological chemistry at Yale, to determine the food values of the food actually bought by these families, and to calculate from such figures what expenditure was necessary to maintain physical efficiency. Dr. Underhill estimated that families that spent less than twenty-two cents per day per man were insufficiently nourished, and that those who spent twenty-two cents or more per day per man were sufficiently nourished.

In like manner, fifty of the Buffalo food schedules were submitted to Dr. Underhill for analysis. They were submitted, however, without the item "liquor used at table" being included, an item which was included in the New York schedules so analyzed.

From this study it appears that twenty-one cents per day per man is the minimum for Buffalo; but when the item of "liquor used at table" is included, it brings the standard up to the twenty-two cents estimated for New York. Because of some misunderstanding with respect to this standard, let me insist that it is not an *a priori* standard based upon the cost of food bought in theoretical quantities and variety, but a figure based upon the actual

food bought by representative families. The fact is, that of the fifty Buffalo schedules submitted, eighty per cent. of those showing an expenditure of twenty-one cents or more per day per man were sufficiently nourished, and eighty-three per cent. of those showing an expenditure of less than twenty-one cents per day per man were insufficiently nourished.

The average disbursement for food in Buffalo is \$299, compared with \$270 in New York; but the New York families average 3.3 units, while the Buffalo families average 3.8. The actual expenditure per day per man is twenty-one and one-half cents in Buffalo, and twenty-two and one-half cents in New York, comparing always with the \$600 to \$700 group in New York. These figures include liquor at table, so that the average Buffalo family spends one-half cent less than the standard of twenty-two cents, and the average New York family spends one-half cent more than the standard. The meals correspond very nearly with those of the New York families. The Polish meals are not unlike, except that a breakfast of coffee and bread only is more common, meat is oftener served at lunch, and a chicken for Sunday is not infrequent. The Italians have macaroni once or twice a day, beer always, and a greater variety of food than the other nationalities. It may be said here that ten of the fifty schedules submitted to Dr. Underhill were Polish, and ten Italian, and that the tables show that the same minimum of twenty-two cents per day per man holds even more decidedly for these nationalities.

Pertinent to this statement, I would quote Dr. Underhill to the effect that "No definite relation appears to exist between the purchase of a preponderance of animal or vegetable food and an ability to live at a low figure." In spite, then, of the apparent variety of the Italian food, it is interesting to note that they average but twenty and one-half cents per day per man and so are probably under-nourished; and further that one and one-half cents of this amount goes for beer, so that nineteen cents is the amount spent for nutritive food, or an amount two cents below the minimum set by Dr. Underhill. The expense per day per man by the Poles is twenty-one and one-half cents with liquor, which is one-half cent below minimum, and twenty cents without liquor, which is one cent below minimum. The expense per day per man for the other fifty families is twenty-two cents, which equals the minimum; and because they spend less for liquor at table, their expense without this item is twenty-one and one-half cents or one-

half cent above minimum. The New York families spend eight per cent. of the total disbursement for food for liquor used in the home, which reduces their actual expenditure for nutritive food to twenty and one-half cents per day per man, which is one-half cent below the corresponding minimum set by Dr. Underhill.

CLOTHES.

The Buffalo family spends for clothes \$106, or seventeen per cent. of the total expenditure, where the New York families spend \$85 or thirteen per cent. of the total. One-third of the families receive gifts of clothing, in both cities. For washing, the Buffalo family spends \$10.50 and the New York family, \$8.50.

HEALTH.

Fifteen dollars is spent for health in Buffalo; twelve of the families have had free medical aid. Only four have been to a dentist. This is \$1 more than shown in New York, but there is less use of free dispensaries, chiefly, I take it, because they are not so available in Buffalo.

CARFARE.

Fifteen dollars is spent for carfare, nearly all of it for the man going to and from work. This item is \$3 higher than for New York, probably because of the greater distances.

To religious organizations, labor unions and lodges \$8 is contributed. This is \$3 less than in New York but in New York twenty-eight per cent. spent nothing under this head while in Buffalo but twenty per cent. spent nothing.

RECREATION.

As in New York, \$4 is spent for recreation and amusement. Twenty-five of the families report excursions, twenty-one attended theatres, and thirty-nine the use of parks. How much of this there can be for a family of six on an expenditure of \$4 per year is easily reckoned.

EDUCATION AND READING.

Six dollars is spent for education and reading, most of it for newspapers; New York, \$5. The Poles bring up the average of this item because of their parochial school tax. Sixty-eight

families buy newspapers, thirty-five have books in their homes, and thirty-eight make use of the public library.

MISCELLANEOUS.

For miscellaneous expenditures, including all spending money and incidentals, there is spent \$12. Most of this goes for tobacco and shaving for the man. In the New York group this item is \$25, \$10 being for tobacco alone.

SUMMARY.

To summarize the results and comparisons, the average expenditures are:

For rent, in Buffalo, 15 per cent.; in New York, 23½ per cent.

For food, in Buffalo, 47 per cent.; in New York, 44½ per cent.

For clothing, in Buffalo, 17 per cent.; in New York, 13 per cent.

For fuel and light, in Buffalo, 6 per cent.; in New York, 6 per cent.

For these four items in Buffalo, 85 per cent.; in New York, 87 per cent.

For carfare, insurance and health, in Buffalo, 8 per cent.; in New York, 6 per cent.

For sundries in Buffalo, 7 per cent.; in New York, 7 per cent.

From a study of the New York report in the Buffalo schedules, it appears to me that the only item of real difference between the two cities is the rent. The exorbitant amount paid for rent in New York renders it impossible for families in that city to spend as much upon the other items as families of the same income in Buffalo. The excess on food in Buffalo is due entirely to the larger sized family, and the excess in insurance may be explained in the same way. A larger expenditure for fuel and light in Buffalo may well be due to the greater number of rooms. The larger expenditure for clothing may be explained partly by the additional member in the family, but is undoubtedly due mainly, as are the larger expenditures for all the remaining items, to the simple fact that there is more money left to go around.

If all the items but rent, these are the same, or if there is no reason why they should not be the same, for the same sized family in New York and Buffalo, what is to prevent our transposing the standard proposed for New York to Buffalo, simply by modifying this one item? Such a transposition would read as follows:

"With an income of between \$650 and \$750 a family in the city of Buffalo can barely support itself, provided that it is subject to no extraordinary expenditures by reason of sickness, death or other untoward circumstances. Such a family can live without charitable assistance through exceptional management and in the absence of emergencies." Or again, "it is a fairly conservative estimate that \$755 is sufficient for the average family of five individuals, comprising father, mother and three children under fourteen years of age, to maintain a fairly proper standard of living in the city of Buffalo."

The standard of \$825 proposed for New York becomes \$755 in Buffalo because of the difference in rent. This standard would hold as well for Poles and Italians as for the other nationalities. But how is this standard of \$825 for New York determined? The report does not tell us; but presumably it was made up from the average expenditures of the \$800 to \$900 group, which is \$807, the surplus being allowed for savings. Let us examine the most important of these items.

The expenditure for food in this group is twenty-seven cents per day per man. That is five cents higher than the minimum set by Dr. Underhill. The New York report says of this minimum that it is much more certain that a family spending less than this are underfed than that those spending more are well nourished; but I wish to point out that Dr. Underhill demonstrated that a large proportion of the families spending twenty-two cents or more — in Buffalo, eighty per cent. were, as far as could be determined, sufficiently nourished. The minimum was purposely set at a figure that made the chances greatly in favor of this condition. If Dr. Underhill's estimate is of any value at all, why, in determining a standard, place the item of food at \$64 a year beyond this minimum? Dr. Underhill says himself, of this minimum, "The task of deciding whether a person is receiving sufficient food is not easy, owing to the many standards upheld by the various schools of nutrition. However, if the average standard generally accepted is adopted there need be no hesitation in the acceptance of the condition of sufficient nourishment." This question was referred to an expert to obtain an expert opinion; if this is not trustworthy, it ought to be revised; but until it is revised, I think we may properly adhere to it. If this is done, the standard of \$825 for New York is reduced to \$760 and the standard of \$755 for Buffalo to \$690.

In estimating a minimum standard the item of rent is readily determined. The \$800 to \$900 group in New York spend \$168 for rent, \$72 more than the Buffalo families. They obtain for this three and one-half rooms, one of which is dark, while the Buffalo families have four rooms, all opening in the outer air; but neither can the New York standard be raised nor the Buffalo standard lowered, for New York tenement-houses do not permit of the one, nor Buffalo detached houses of the other.

From a study of a large number of books in New York and of averages drawn from these books, a tentative estimate of the necessary expenditure for clothing has been drawn up by Mr. Chapin, secretary to the New York committee. The amount "probably" necessary is estimated at \$125; the amount that it might be "possible" to get along on is estimated at \$100. The report says "it is believed that \$125 is none too much, but making a discount of twenty per cent. it seems safe to say that \$100 is a conservative minimum allowance for clothing." This method of arriving at a minimum illustrates the essential difficulty of this whole problem, the essential weakness of the proposed standard, or any other standard that might be proposed. In the matter of food and rent we can be fairly accurate, or at least definite. In the matter of clothing, the studies reveal important facts, bearing on a possible minimum; but who can say that an average family of five needs this amount or that? By what reasoning is twenty per cent. cut from what seems to be necessary? And if twenty per cent. is cut from this item what is to be said of the average expenditures shown for such items as health, insurance, education or amusements? Does any one who believes recreation to be an essential part of the cost of a proper standard of living really think that \$6 covers the need for a family of five for a year? The man who agrees to \$6 will probably agree also to \$10. How are we to decide which is right? What process of reasoning is actually applied to the items outside of food, rent and clothing, basing a standard of living upon the expenditures shown by 400 families? Is there any actual measuring of the efficacy of the average disbursements? There is not; and the method is an *a priori* method, modified possibly by the facts shown, but in a very vague way, that by no means establishes the standard on empirical grounds.

I do not offer these remarks as a criticism on the New York investigation. The New York committee very distinctly says that it "does not feel the investigation which has been made is more

than a preliminary one, and for this reason its findings are but the interpretation of the facts presented in the schedules;" that "the number of schedules returned, while larger than in any similar investigation made heretofore, is still too small to postulate definite conclusions." I am insisting on the very general and unfinal nature of such reports as that of this year and last, because of the general acceptance of the standard set for New York as a definite standard to be accepted without further inquiry. The figures of the New York committee have even been incorporated in the most recent book on economics, from one of our trusted university departments, being accepted there as a standard for the average American city. Times have changed when the academic scholars swallow the conclusions of social workers whole, without even stopping to see what manner of food it is; but if this change has come, it is all the more important for us to be accurate in method and conservative in statement.

In conclusion, I would say that the method by which the committee arrived at a standard last year, unless they have held back some arguments, should have produced a minimum standard for New York of \$760 rather than \$825; and that a similar standard for Buffalo, since the only essential difference is in the matter of rent, would be \$690. The investigations made in New York and Buffalo have not established these standards on empirical grounds; but one thing all will agree to, and that is, that the average wage of unskilled labor in these two cities is far below the income necessary to provide what any one of us could call a minimum standard of living from the facts revealed by these investigations. I recommend to the members of this Conference a careful examination of the charts, tables and elaborated study of the New York schedules, soon to be published; and, finally, I urge upon the Conference the importance of a more thorough investigation of the whole subject, extending over a far larger number of families, and through a period of at least twelve months.

CHAIRMAN ALMY: Discussion will begin by Prof. Fetter of Cornell University. I wish to say that the report was not in his hands until yesterday. I take pleasure in introducing Prof. Fetter.

FRANK A. FETTER: Ladies and gentlemen of the Conference: Those who have listened to these interesting and thoughtful papers realize now, perhaps as never before, how numerous are the ques-

tions opened up by the inquiry on the standard of living. I must limit my discussion to two of the problems suggested: First, the relative importance of rent in Buffalo and in New York City; and, second, the difficulty of defining the concept of living.

As to the first, Mr. Howard has brought exact evidence to support the conclusion of other observers, that the rent paid in New York City is excessively high and the standard of housing abnormally low. Buffalo is a great city, as great as New York was a half century ago. Buffalo has now a higher standard of housing. Mr. Howard shows that, even if we tried, we could not make the standard of living in Buffalo as bad as it is in New York; and no matter how much we try, we cannot make the standard in New York as good in some essential features as it is in Buffalo. The difference lies in the size of the cities and the resulting value of land. If this investigation is extended to smaller cities and to rural communities, as it should be, the contrast surely will become much more striking. The Buffalo investigation already shows us how great is the error of citing the conditions in New York City as typical of American cities. Are we not coming to believe that a city of over one million is an abnormal thing, a social monstrosity? The sentiment is growing among social workers that we must declare war on such congestion of population as exists in New York City, giving housing conditions where normal, wholesome living is impossible for the masses.

The difficulty in defining the standard of living is suggested by Mr. Howard's criticism of the report of the New York committee of last year. "Standard of living," as used in this discussion, is coming to have a thought very different from that of the economists of the last century who first used the term. They meant by standard of living that sum of goods necessary for each family in order that the working population should be maintained in undiminished numbers. As first used, it was a bare *physical or physiological minimum of living*. Yet the working population may be maintained from generation to generation in undiminished numbers, while frightful suffering prevails and where famine and disease from evil conditions sweep away great numbers. Such a standard, though it enables the working population to remain in undiminished numbers, gives little solace to the friends of humanity.

The thought of a crude physical standard soon developed to a somewhat subtler thing, the *psychological standard of living*; that

standard which is set by each class or family below which its members delay marriage, and after marriage limit greatly the number of children. Mr. Howard's doubts suggest that in the course of our discussion here of the standards of living, we may be more or less confused between the physical and the spiritual standards of living. The recent discussion of this subject began with an attempt to define and fix a *charitable relief standard* for the use of the almoner, approximately, although somewhat better than the physiological minimum of the older economists. These charity families are those that have fallen into temporary need; they are not normal working-class families. Applied in such a season of exceptional stress, the standard of charitable relief can hardly provide for the enjoyments, the recreations, and the savings which are a necessary part of the standard of the normal family.

What, then, does Mr. Almy mean when he declares that the social worker should apply a standard more bountiful than that of many independent families? The charitable worker to-day is more than an old-time giver of doles. He has constructive plans of social regeneration through the regeneration of individuals and of families. He cannot rest content with the ideal of the physiological and physical minimum standard for the masses. He has advanced to an ideal of an *adequate American standard of living*. Is it not this that Mr. Almy has in mind when he speaks of a constantly receding ideal which we may pursue but never overtake?

This ideal standard of American citizenship is above our own actual American standard, and still farther above the actual standard of other countries in the world to-day, as is witnessed by the influx of immigrants coming to increase their incomes here, though content with conditions far short of our ideal. This ideal cannot be quickly imposed upon people by giving them more. They cannot be lifted to it by the work of others. It becomes *their* standard only as they make it a part of their own thought, something for which they will strive. How can the social workers get into the hearts and lives and aspirations of the American citizens this ideal standard of living? Only by a far-sighted program of social reform. All wise measures of education must be applied to redeem the redeemable and to train the trainable. The laggards must be spurred, and this calls for a great alteration of our ideals in the treatment of the pauper classes. Those failing or unable to attain the standard must be held under guardianship and custodial care. There must be a stricter control of marriage and a stricter standard of admission for immigrants, for it is illogical to set up

one standard for citizens in this country and another for the millions coming from abroad. Here, surely, are problems in the standard of living to engage the social reformer for generations to come.

MR. ROBERT S. CHAPIN (reading Dr. Devine's paper): Standards of living, we shall no doubt all agree, are to be identified, not with external, material considerations, not with forms of government or the industrial system, not with money income or accumulated wealth, but rather with intelligent and moral character, with habits and appetites, with powers of enjoyment and of self-denial, with the strength of family affections and of the religious faith and affiliations, with personal and social qualities which may sometimes rise superior to the most overwhelming misfortunes and the most adverse circumstances of life. In a word, to sum up this distinction in the ordinary technical language, standards of living are psychological and not physical, spiritual and not material, subjective, not objective, not fixed unalterably by the environment, but rather the outward expression and index of the degree of development which the inward man has attained. Nothing belongs in our standard of living unless it is important to us, unless we are willing to make sacrifices for it, unless when we are deprived of it we are willing to work harder and longer hours, to save for it, to give up other things for it, to shape our work and our home life in such a way as to get it. We have found in the steel mills in the course of the Pittsburgh Survey, during the past year, what economists have long since known as a general principle — that far greater energy is always displayed to prevent the cutting down of a wage once earned and obtained than is put forth to secure an advance, even when the possibility of securing an advance is actually greater and the actual income at the moment entirely inadequate to any decent standard. No clearer indication of the psychological character of the standard of living could be desired, or of the vital importance to any community of attaining and maintaining for a considerable period the highest possible standards, so that they may thus become an integral part of the mental makeup of the people. All this, however, is by no means to deny that there is a close relation between the actual material conditions in which people live and their essential standards of living. There is the closest possible relation.

While they are not to be identified, they are to be recognized as standing to each other to some extent in relation of cause to

effect. Low wages, long hours, small, dark, unsanitary, and crowded dwellings, food poor in quality, insufficient in quantity, and badly cooked and prepared, dirty clothes, dirty floors and all other depressing features of a low standard, are deplorable; first, because they indicate that the real standards are low and are satisfied by these things, but in the last analysis they are deplorable for a graver reason, because they have injurious effect upon mind and body, because they destroy the germs of higher standards, because they have a cumulative effect on the present generation and the next, because they are active influences counteracting education and religion, and all the progressive, regenerating, uplifting forces.

I have eagerly searched the records of recent investigations, conducted under the auspices of this Conference, and of other similar investigations made under other auspices, to find what light they might throw upon our practical work in the field of charity and of social work, and they have seemed to me to reinforce the conclusion which I expressed in our local conference in New York last November, on the betterment of living conditions, that there are two great evils in our modern social and industrial life — two all but omnipresent overshadowing evils, by the side of which intemperance, and shiftlessness, and unemployment, and all the other well-known so-called causes of distress — grave and apparently unconquerable as they often seem — sink into a second place either because they are purely personal and curable only by priest or physician, or because in so far as they are social causes they are in a fair way to be overcome.

Overwork in the shops of the industrial centers and overcrowding in the tenements of the cities are the two evils which, because we are not making perceptible headway in overcoming them, because the economic tendencies of the time are intensifying them, because they have been only very superficially studied and their disastrous results only very imperfectly understood, seem to me to demand the first consideration of all those who are willing to go behind the facts of a low standard of living to the influences which are operating to keep it low, and which are operating to reduce the standards even of those who in other countries it may be, or on the farms, or in the smaller towns of our own country, have known higher standards than those which we now find among them.

If then you ask my remedies for a low standard of living, I would reply unhesitatingly, reduce the hours and relieve the

intensity of the strain of the factory and put a stop to overcrowding in cities. There is overwork in office and store and in the home as well as in factory, but the increase of overwork is especially in the stores and factories. The growth of trade and manufacture is the significant fact of modern life, and participation of women and children in manufactures and in mercantile establishments has enormously increased the evil effects of overwork. Factory legislation has developed but slowly, lagging far behind the abuses with which it is intended to cope. The conservatism and the indirect corruption of many of the lower and higher courts of justice have put a heavy drag even upon such legislation as we have. Still further obstacles are the delays of justice, the abuse of the right of appeal, reversals on technicalities and the subservience of magistrates to political bosses — evils which I do not now for the first time enumerate, but which have been charged, far more vehemently than I would wish to charge them, by distinguished members of the bar and others, who are trying to overcome them. The plain facts are that in our own state hundreds of thousands, and in the nation millions of men, women and children, and I emphasize especially young women and children, are working more hours than is good for their health, breathing impure and vitiated air, exposed to dangers from unprotected machinery, employed in occupations for which their physical constitution unfits them, or subjected to a speeding process and a nervous strain which uses them up entirely in a few years, and even earlier predisposes them to disease and infection.

With the extension of manufacturing to the smaller towns, and even to rural locations, these issues become more completely national, ceasing to be the concern merely of the industrial population of large towns. A few days ago I had occasion to speak on these subjects before a woman's club in a suburban town of about four thousand. It is not a manufacturing but a residence town, with a theological seminary as its most notable industry. At the close of the meeting a gentleman who, although apparently not without visible means of support must have been without regular occupation, expressed mild surprise at a reference which I had made to the subject of overwork. "I am not sure," said he, "just what you mean." I mentioned some illustrations of the speeding process and the unreasonable demands on factory girls, and although apparently ready enough to take my word for it, he appeared still to be rather puzzled and surprised that such things

should be, and went away saying apologetically, "I inquired because here we do not see anything of that kind." On the train back to the city I had the company of a member of the club which I had addressed. Unlike their guest, of whom I have spoken, she knew as a practical volunteer social worker something about the actual working conditions and living conditions of the town of which they were both citizens, and when I had told her about the conversation which I had just had, her eyes blazed with indignation, and she proceeded to tell me about three young women, all of whom she had known well, two of them having been employed in her own household, all of whom had suffered directly, to the point of actual physical injury, as operatives in a box factory, the only manufacturing enterprise in the suburban town. It employed only twenty girls, but in excessive hours of labor, in the lack of ventilation and in all the other common evidences of exploitation and neglect it could give points to a large factory of a large town. It is not merely the immigrant, it is not merely the urban operative. It is also the American born woman, the farmer's daughter, the grammar school graduate from the small town, whose standards of living are ultimately lowered by the conditions in which she spends the working period of her life.

Now we may look to legislation to cure these evils, or we may accept Prof. Sumner's philosophy that social classes owe each other nothing, and that workingmen and working women should be expected through their labor organizations and otherwise to take care of themselves. For my part I believe in both, and I cannot understand how any citizen can consistently oppose factory legislation and its effective enforcement on the one hand, and at the same time on the other hand bitterly and instinctively oppose every voluntary attempt on the part of workingmen, through their unions, to gain the conditions necessary to a higher standard of living. Large output, large dividends, and cheap commodities, are very desirable, but from the point of view of the community, they are not worth purchasing at the price of unnecessary widowhood and orphanage; constitutions undermined and health impaired, such intense labor and severe strain as make alcoholic indulgence a matter of course, and such demands upon the twenty-four hours as leave the victims of the industrial system unable to enjoy home life, or church life, or social life of any kind. It is not necessary. England with a far lower industrial efficiency, and Germany with far more adverse conditions than ours, both take better care of

their operatives. Machines are made in this country for both domestic and foreign trade in which the latter have and the former have not devices for protecting the hands of those who work them, merely because English laws require them and New York and Pennsylvania laws do not, with the result that fingers and hands are frequently amputated here which there would be saved. Our standards are higher than those of Europe, but they are tending toward the same level, and if we do not successfully deal with overwork and its allied evils in stores and factories, the time will come when we shall be a nation of neurasthenic wrecks and we shall need to replenish the vigor of our stock by persuading our sons to marry the healthier women of immigrants, and our daughters to bring their foreign husbands home to improve our stock. We have overwork for two reasons — because it is pecuniarily profitable to employers, and because the public in general has not appreciated that it exists and that it is a colossal national danger. The first step in checking it is to arouse a public sentiment favorable to all attempts to control it — whether by the Legislature and the courts or by the organization of labor, taking care of course that we do not help to precipitate reactionary movements by championing impractical and utopian measures. Just now we seem to be in the midst of some such slight reactionary currents, and it is perhaps more necessary to be on our guard against being carried into an unsympathetic attitude toward legitimate proposals for shorter hours, better working conditions, lessening of accidents and the like.

With the crowding of our population into towns and cities, the problem of congestion becomes increasingly acute. The mere increase in overcrowding, serious as that is, whether measured by the number of persons in a room, or by the population to the acre, is not the whole of the evil of congestion. The concomitant evils of noise and nervous excitement, and the pressing in upon us of temptations and difficulties due merely to numbers aggravate the injury resulting from lack of room and lack of privacy. Concentration in the cities brings also advantages, among them freedom from other temptations and difficulties peculiar to isolation. It is, however, high time to determine the limits within which the positive injuries and privations incident to congestion can be endured, and to ascertain whether there may not be ways in which the economic and social forces already at work to counteract concentration may be supplemented and encouraged by the adoption

of intelligent policies to that end. The inquiry which this Conference authorized two years ago and of which a preliminary report relating especially to New York City was made last year, tersely summed up by the secretary, Prof. Chapin, shows that in the lower income groups, that is to say below \$600 a year, overcrowding is the rule; in incomes of from \$600 to \$800, fifty-eight per cent. are overcrowded, that is there are on the average more than one and a half persons per room, or in still other words, that a family of six persons has less than four rooms at its disposal. In families with \$800 income it is still true that fifty-three per cent. are overcrowded, according to the same standard. As the income rises from \$500 to \$1,000, each family gains some space, but on the other hand lodgers are called in, so that there is practically no relief from overcrowding in the tenements of Manhattan until the family has an income of about eleven hundred dollars, or between three and a half and four dollars for every working day in the year. Three-fourths of all the Italian families included in our inquiry are living in two or three-room apartments — one-quarter in two rooms. Sixty per cent. of all the Russian and Austrian families studied by the Conference committee were in two or three-room flats. I may say parenthetically that of fifteen hundred families who applied to the Charity Organization Society in 1905-6, one-quarter were living two in a room at the time of their application — in other words were overcrowded according to a much lower standard than that adopted by the State Conference committee.

Congestion is of course worse in Manhattan than in the other New York boroughs, and measured by population to the acre New York City has areas which are not only worse than are to be found in any other American city, but are worse than can be matched in any city of Europe. Room for room there is greater overcrowding in Dublin (where eleven per cent. of the population live one family of five persons to the room), in Glasgow or in London (where twenty-six per cent. and fifteen per cent. respectively of all "dwellings" are one-room tenements), but their rooms are larger than ours, and since the houses are smaller the overcrowding does not extend in the same degree to public halls and streets.

Whatever congestion may mean elsewhere, it means in the city of New York overcrowded stairs and hallways, overcrowded streets and sidewalks, overcrowded schools and playgrounds, over-

crowded trains and street cars and ferries, overcrowded sunlight and shadow, sky and earth and sea and air, overcrowded police courts and hospitals, and overcrowded graveyards, overcrowded highways to those regions of endless bliss and of torture, wherein the greatest contrast after all will be perhaps that in one there are many spacious mansions while in the other there is congestion.

Are there no remedies? It would be the bankruptcy of statesmanship, of social economy, of charity, nay even of common sense to admit that there are no remedies. Rational town planning, changes in our system of taxation, control of the location of factories, and encouragement financial and educational to the formation of the new centers of population, are among the possible remedial measures. No one, so far as I am aware, is prepared to outline a complete policy for overcoming congestion unless it be the socialist who finds its source in private property, or the single taxer who finds it in private property in land. If we are not prepared to admit the soundness of either contention, we are bound to address ourselves to the discovery of the true causes and to the devising of plans that will effectually overcome them.

The remedy for a low standard of living is not simple or single. It lies in the economic and social forces which determine such matters as income and the conditions of labor, overcrowding and the conditions of living. Our immediate duty is the securing of a more favorable environment which will react upon character and the standard of living, increasing efficiency, giving a freer scope for the realization of the standards which people already have, and lifting to the recognized normal standards of to-day individuals who have within them the latent power to live as their neighbors live if they have a reasonable chance. The housing movement, the tuberculosis movement, the child-labor movement, the eight-hour movement, the industrial-education movement, the probation movement, the playground movement, the congestion movement, the movement for improvement of rural conditions — what are these but so many specific applications of the general remedy for a low standard of living, by changing the environment in which those who are close to the margin live and work. Strength to the right arm of the promoter of any movement calculated to make it easier for any of the children of men to raise low standards of living, to maintain normal standards, or to push high standards, really high standards, higher.

CHAIRMAN ALMY: We shall have a treat in the paper of Dr. Weyl. Dr. Weyl said he could not come in person, and his paper will be read by Roy Smith Wallace, head worker of the Watson House, in Buffalo.

MR. ROY WALLACE (reading Dr. Weyl's paper):

DR. WALTER E. WEYL: The able and interesting paper of Dr. Devine gives me a sense of its general truth yet leaves me unconvinced. I feel with him that our increasing intensity of work and the patent and painful congestion of some of our urban populations are intimately connected with our low standard of living. Yet the standard was still lower before factory work became intense and before our city population even began, and as for the latter phenomenon, it seems to me that the problem of congestion, taking a long view, is one that is local to New York, and that for the great mass of our city populations the tendency is not towards congestion, but towards further dispersion.

In attacking this problem of the low standard of living, I am face to face with the same difficulty that evidently confronted Dr. Devine. The low standard of living is not a single simple problem, but as Dr. Devine has shown, merely one phase of an intricate, wide-spreading and complex problem. When we seek to exorcise any of the economic devils of our modern society, even the most shrinking and inconspicuous, we find that we have by the tail not one lone, friendless imp, but a cousin to Beelzebub and all his friends. They are all related.

The low standard of living is rooted not only in our mental habits and traditions, but equally in our material conditions, in our laws of production and distribution, in our methods of earning and spending. When we preach to the workers, not contentment, but an enlightened and temperate discontent, when we emphasize not savings, but a wise and varied expenditure, when we throw the burden of our argument, not upon the virtue of abstinence and bank accounts, but upon the advantages of bathtubs and warm underwear and comfortable houses, we shall have done something towards raising the low standard. When we teach domestic economy and the art of spending and enjoying, we shall have done more. We shall have accomplished even more, however, when we shall have improved the material conditions that make a high standard of living possible.

It is not alone, nor even perhaps principally, a question of

production. Whatever increases the productivity of industry tends undoubtedly, slowly and clumsily, but inevitably, to increase the well-being of the great mass of workingmen. We have, by the sheer force of our stupendous technical and economic progress, enormously raised the standard of living of the mass while vastly increasing the mass to be raised. And we are, it cannot be doubted, only upon the threshold of another tremendous increase in general prosperity which makes our former advance appear insignificant in comparison. Yet, primarily, it is a problem of distribution. We cannot afford to let the welfare of the great mass of our workers depend upon the crusts that fall from the overflowing table. We must effect a better distribution, so that even with our present per capita wealth, the standard of living of the least of our workers will be worthy of the vast technical progress from which it has sprung.

Of all the practicable instruments for effecting a rise in the living standards of workingmen, the most obvious and one of the most efficacious is the trade union. Its very *raison d'être* is the high standard of living. The trade union is based upon the principle of a definite, irreducible minimum wage for all the members of the trade. It frankly and openly forbids the less exigent workman from accepting a wage lower than that which the majority consider necessary for the maintenance of a high standard of living. It denies to the exceptionally strong, the exceptionally untiring or the exceptionally ambitious the right to work for a longer number of hours or at a higher rate of speed than is considered by the majority as compatible with the maintenance of health and vigor. It enables the workingmen of a trade to act as a single unit in deciding upon wages, hours and working conditions, and finally, it establishes among its members a social sense, a social pressure, distinct from the mere economic pressure, by which men who are willing to reduce their own standard of living are compelled to aspire to the minimum standard set by the majority.

Unfortunately, however, the problem of the low standard of living in its most acute form partially escapes the beneficent effect of direct trade union action. The most effective work of the labor union presupposes a fairly high standard to begin with. It is easier, far easier, for a union of skilled workers to raise an already high standard than it is for a union of unskilled workers to raise or even maintain a low standard, or, in fact, to exist at

all. "Unto every one that hath shall be given; but from him who hath not shall be taken away even that which he hath."

Now, in America, it is the immigrant, the unskilled, the defenseless, the unorganized and almost unorganizable sections of the working population that suffer most from a low standard of living, and the correlative plagues of poverty and pauperism. It is the Italian in the trenches, the Jew in the sweated trades, the adult negro hotel boy, and the woman in the parasitic and anarchical petty industries that submerge their standards to the level of an inadequate earning power. It is the member of a decaying or disrupted household seeking to maintain a family upon an individual income, who lowers his or her standard at the behest of an unbending necessity. It is the victims of child labor, the victims of overwork and underpay, the victim of countless industrial and social maladjustments and of resulting personal maladjustments, who stagger under an impossible load and drag down their own standard and the standard of those with whom they ineffectively compete. The low standard of living is a slough in which many die, and in which many who pass through contract weaknesses or ills which slay others than the immediate victims.

Here, where it is most needed, the trade union is obviously least effective. It is infinitely difficult, despite heroic personal endeavor, to organize and maintain in organizations the vast armies of immigrants who arrive with lower standards and alien conceptions of life. While probably the standard of living of the world is raised by an immigration which is merely an adjustment of labor to the world's industrial opportunities, it is equally probable that the standard of the American unskilled worker is thereby at least temporarily lowered. It is equally difficult to organize the low-skilled and easily contented negroes, the low-waged unskilled women, and the insufficiently paid and often pitilessly exploited child worker. The low standard of this conglomerate class is the very cause of the weakness of the trade union which is to raise the standard.

Progress, however, though slow, is being made. The industrial unions, foremost among which is the United Mineworkers of America, are examples of large and comparatively strong and stable organizations of unskilled aliens. From the trade union point of view, the problem must be attacked by repeatedly and constantly attempting to organize the unskilled workers of all

trades; by seeking to establish coalitions between the more skilled and the less skilled bodies of workingmen in a single industry; by creating a feeling of solidarity and common fellowship through federations of labor and otherwise among all workingmen, from the most highly paid and highly skilled mechanic to the day laborer on the streets; by establishing and creating laws regulating and limiting the hours and intensity of labor; by legally raising, if possible, the rates of wages; by withdrawing from labor the very young and the very old; by protecting especially, the labor of women and children; by providing for compensation for industrial accidents, and, in general, by securing through legislation or by social pressure the betterment of the general working conditions of the great mass of the unskilled.

Beyond these endeavors lie other possibilities. The standard of living depends not alone upon wages, but upon prices, upon carfare, upon rent, upon free parks and libraries and other facilities; in short, upon the extent to which the increasing "free goods" of the nation are made available. The whole work of social betterment and the whole progress in production share with the hope of a juster distribution and a more humane sense of social equities, in the advance which must be made before every section of our community will enjoy a reasonable standard of living.

CHAIRMAN ALMY: We are now on time with our work and have twenty minutes for general discussion of the papers. I hope the Conference will not fail to respond at this time with some talk. To get it started I will say that Mr. Chapin came here from Wisconsin to hear this. I think he must not escape without giving us something of his own on the subject. I hope Mr. Chapin, whom I now introduce, will say something.

MR. CHAPIN: I came to listen and not to speak. My share in the preparation of the report presented last year in epitome, and which will be in fuller detail before long, led me to desire to see what the subject looked like in the light of very careful investigation carried on in Buffalo; and I am pleased to see how largely the Buffalo investigation increased my confidence in the general results of the investigation in New York. The Buffalo investigators had advantages in having one investigator where in New York perhaps one dozen of them interviewed three-quar-

ters of the families. The Buffalo investigation was conducted on a plan which made it possible to have more careful scrutiny and to avail of the actual written records of the expenditures of the families; and I am pleased to know that the more general results agreed with our rough and ready methods used in New York City. I also appreciate the manner in which the results have been presented this morning.

The paper of Dr. Devine suggested one or two things about which I should like to say a word. It seems that the congestion problem is not a local problem. In New York City it is an acute evil which must be cured, and in the rest of the country it is a question of the prevention of an evil which might in time become as great as in New York City. I live in a small town, a town of 15,000 inhabitants and they are now putting up three and four-story apartment houses in order to keep nearer the place of business. We should not wait until the evil has overtaken us, but we should by pre-emption of the ground, prevent the mistakes in city building, that we see now before us as frightful warnings in the older cities of the country.

Then the other point to which I should like to call attention is the state of progress set forth in Dr. Devine's paper, namely, that such a standard as we talk of is psychological, subjective, depending on what is in the mind of the people; and the way to raise the standard is to raise the minds of the people, and the elevation of the wants of the people to a higher pitch, not in their amount, but in their quality. A New York family with \$800 could live better than it does if it were better balanced in the things it wants. So, one way is to readjust that balance. I drew off from the New York figures, families that were living below the standard. Here is one for food, twenty-two cents and sixty-four, for the standard of the house. One hundred dollars for the standard — I cut that from \$125 to \$100 so as to cover the underclothed family.

Now in the New York families only a few were taken up by us. Every family with less than \$500 to live on was underfed. With from \$700 to \$800 to live on they were thirty per cent. underfed; twenty per cent. on incomes of \$800 to \$900; ten per cent. on all those from \$900 to \$1,000, and ten per cent. between \$1,000 and \$1,100. That is to say, underfeeding did not stop when you got above the \$800 or \$900 point. There are families that did not care to buy wholesome food though they had sufficient income.

On the other side there is the cultivation of the higher standard

of values in the comparison of wants, and in the cultivation of those wants that your economists cite as the culture wants. The physical wants can be reduced as Mr. Howard has suggested, to a fixed standard, but the culture wants cannot — how many newspapers and to what extent patronage at public libraries could be had — that is, how much he must have in order to live as a normal human being. But everything that tends to develop those culture wants will be a help in the raising of the standard of living.

MR. EASTMAN (of Elmira): Just to emphasize the point made, that it is psychological as well as physiological, let me say that twenty-five years ago in the missions in West Africa our missionaries thought they had gained a great point when some of the natives came in and wanted hats.

ZEBULON R. BROCKWAY: I can scarcely withhold from stating that I am delighted at the change of tone in these charity conferences since years ago when I began to attend them. The changes from the gushing philanthropy of those days to the economical philanthropy of the present are most welcome. You can scarcely imagine how delighted an old fellow like myself was last evening and this morning to discover this economic tone.

Next, I want to say that I am delighted at the recognition in Mr. Devine's paper and those of others who have read and spoken this morning, of the interweaving of the physiological and the psychological. You cannot cultivate the physical without cultivating the psychological and you cannot cultivate the psychical unless you work at the same time with the physical. With the class of associations I have had all my life — rather questionable associates, as most of our people know here — I have been strongly impressed with the fact that the difficulty is mainly with the physical. Perhaps the degenerate's and the pauper's physical conditions may be the product of all these social conditions mentioned here. Then, I have a sort of feeling that it is impossible by voluntary work or persuasion or any power that charity workers possess, to bring about much of a change in the condition of the industrial classes. You might fight and get here and there a benefit in child labor or some particular department, but not general benefit.

A New York friend told me they started once to clear out the

lodging houses on the river front, and they got the inmates out and had the places put in better condition; but they soon had a different class of lodgers, and the others had gone across the river. So if you improve the conditions in one factory, they will go somewhere else. I think the physical must receive attention. I think we must hark back to the physical and go to work at that. There comes to my mind now an illustrative incident: I had a Negro in the reformatory; he was about twenty-three or twenty-four or twenty-five years old, apparently a good specimen, who after a year of strenuous work with an excellent teacher, it was found we were unable to educate. We could get him to number five in the multiplication table, but not to seven. On one occasion, by great effort we got him up to seven, but the next day he had dropped back to five. We put him in the first class of physical training — which meant baths and massage and gymnasium and dieting. In about a year he began to show evidences of improvement. He found a cartridge, and he saw that the end of it was filled with lead; and as an evidence of his intellectual awakening, he started to melt out that lead at a gas light. Well, it gave him some education that he carries now in the shape of a lost finger. About a year and a half after, he was sent to the Northwest and he could write, and when we received his letter, it contained the statement "I have learned, Mr. Superintendent, that to be good to myself, I must be good to others"—a bit of wisdom which came from physiological training.

I have failed to hear from any speaker here any doubt of the presto change method bringing a change to the present generation. We may accomplish much in the fifteen million children of the country. That is a place where the charity workers should devote their attention. We need baths in our schools and gymnasiums in our schoolhouses and gardens; and we need systematic, scientific, physical training as a basis of better intellectual and psychological training. Let us give our attention to the preparation of the next generation and the next and the next; and in three generations we may have some perceptible improvement in the conditions of our society if we can shut out the flood of people who are coming from the other side.

DR. WHITE: I simply wanted to emphasize the plea of the chairman of the Committee for a better understanding between charity workers and organized labor; and I am glad to see the

emphasis put in the various papers upon the preventive work of organized labor. I think there is a great deal of misunderstanding on both sides. Many times I find a misconception on the part of organized labor leaders of organized charity, holding charity workers in contempt. On the other hand, it is true of most people who are not acquainted with these leaders, that they consider them as czars, with great power. I think it is possible through our Monday clubs to meet them and to get the benefit of their point of view, as it will help each. I find the leaders — and the higher up you go, through the state and up to the national leaders, that as you go up to the national leaders, you find them to be intelligent, conservative men, anxious at all times to prevent strikes. Before I came into close contact with them, I had a different opinion; and I have learned to respect them and their ideals, and to consider them conservative, progressive men; therefore, I desired to emphasize the suggestion made in Mr. Almy's paper this morning.

CHAIRMAN ALMY: John Mitchell, in writing to me once said he wanted to do all in his power to help organized charity.

PRESIDENT ROSENDALE: We will now adjourn the meeting to meet this afternoon.

Session adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, NOVEMBER 18, 1908.

PROGRAM.

- 1:30 P. M. Business.
- 2:00 P. M. Report of the Committee on the Care and Relief of the Poor in their Homes. Chairman, John J. Fitzgerald, secretary of the Particular Council of New York City, Society of St. Vincent de Paul.
- 2:20 P. M. Personal Service versus the Spirit of the Times, by Rev. John J. Mullany, of St. John's Rectory, Syracuse, N. Y.
- 2:40 P. M. Discussion. Opened by Francis H. McLean, national field secretary for the extension of organized charity, New York City.
- 2:50 P. M. General discussion.
- 3:10 P. M. The Employment of the Handicapped, by W. Frank Persons, superintendent of the Charity Organization Society, New York City.
- 3:30 P. M. Discussion. Opened by Dr. Sydney E. Goldstein, Rector of Social Service Work, Free Synagogue, New York City.
- 3:40 P. M. General discussion.
- 4:00 P. M. Visit to Elmira Reformatory to witness dress parade.

PRESIDENT ROSENDALE: Is there any business to be brought before the Conference? If not we will proceed with the regular order of business, which is the report of the Committee on the Care and Relief of the Poor in their Homes.

The chairman of this session is John J. Fitzgerald, secretary of the Particular Council of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, New York City. He has written a report which will be read by Mr. Underhill, who will take charge of the meeting in the absence of Mr. Fitzgerald.

MR. UNDERHILL: To discuss properly the subject of the care and relief of the poor in their homes, it appears to me that the better way to begin is to consider the one greatest cause which, above all others, leads to poverty.

Poverty will always exist. In the words of our Lord: "The poor ye always have with you." The one seemingly inevitable cause, irrevocably linking humanity with poverty and from which apparently there is no escape, is material progress. Study the evolution and material progress of man and you will discover, quite readily, that it is based upon competition and struggle, selection and rejection.

The principle of competition and struggle, I might add, is not limited solely to mankind, for a study of all created nature reveals it to be the basic principle of material progress among all things animate, both vegetable and animal. That such a principle actually does exist is proven by the fact that, in certain fields, some one plant predominates to the exclusion of all others of a different variety; in the forest, in its primeval state, some particular species of tree predominates, practically crowding out or dwarfing all others. Then again, in some sections of the country it will be found that certain wild animals abound in great numbers, holding almost absolute sway over vast plains and forests, while in another locality, not far distant perhaps, this same class of animals is practically unknown, mayhap having been driven out by other beasts.

Better to illustrate: It is a well-known fact that the rat will depart from his accustomed abode just as soon as the weasel arrives, and the rattlesnake will disappear immediately upon the approach of the wild boar. Without doubt, I think you will agree with me, all this goes far to prove that this principle or law of progress brings poverty and destruction to the animal and vegetable kingdom as well as to mankind.

Looking into the history of the past and going back over the ages as far as they are covered by history, we discover that, even in times past, countless and unceasing efforts have been made to bring about a reorganization of affairs wherein competition and struggle would be eliminated and the conditions of mankind equalized to some extent. History proves, however, that all such efforts never have resulted successfully to the body politic, at least for any great period.

From these deductions it is quite evident that poverty and want are not by any means what might be termed accidental. In the field of commerce and trade, likewise in the arena of science and labor, competition and struggle are always rife, yet they serve a purpose, for they bring out the best qualities in those engaged in the struggle. The leaders of commerce and industry, in making a choice of lieutenants to aid them in the accomplishment of their designs, recognize these principles and exercise their right of selection and rejection to secure efficient men.

Hence it is but natural to find that the ablest and most proficient are chosen, while those less capable are cast aside to be given consideration only when all other supply has been exhausted. This condition of affairs is bound to exist just so long as reward is the compensation of labor.

In dealing with the question of want, the causes leading to it, and the best methods of adequately treating it, we will have to consider, necessarily, not only the poor who have fallen by the wayside because of the effects of the unrelenting laws of material progress, but likewise we must take into account that class of poor who have been reduced to want from other causes, such as, for instance, lack of thrift, negligence, indifference, indolence and dissipation. One particularly unfortunate feature of this latter class of poor is that the evil results of their failures and shortcomings are visited upon others who, while contributing no part to the causes which brought about their unfortunate condition, nevertheless are unable to help themselves.

Training and environment are two most important factors which must be taken into consideration when dealing with the poor, no matter whether their misfortunes are due to circumstances beyond their control or to other causes to which possibly they largely may have contributed.

Sometimes we fail to understand why a man with a large family and who for years has had steady employment should, wher

out of employment for a few weeks, at once find himself reduced to a state of want. Now, in many cases, if we were to investigate the matter more closely, we would find that the poor, unfortunate man, in receipt of very small wages, has had a continuous struggle to make ends meet and has been forced to make many sacrifices to eke out a miserable existence for himself and those dependent upon him.

When we consider that nearly fifty per cent. of the people of this country have absolutely no share in the wealth of the nation, subsisting solely from week to week on meagre and insufficient wages, we are able better to form a more correct estimate of the sufferings and miseries bound to exist among such of the poor as are thrown out of employment.

We must deal with people as they are, and not as they should be. Consequently in ministering to the wants of the poor let us not fail to take into consideration the environments surrounding them and the training they have received. There is one lesson we all may learn from the poor — that is, patience. Were they as importunate as some of their more fortunate brethren, wealth would not be secure, even with all the power of the law and the means at hand for the enforcement of its dictates.

In viewing the shortcomings of the poor let us not fail to take into consideration that much of their misery may be due to lack of opportunities and early advantages.

It should be our aim, rather, to create opportunities for them and to awaken in them a desire for a better environment. This great country of ours abounds in opportunities for all who know how to grasp and take advantage of them. Unfortunately, however, there are only too many who know absolutely nothing of its boundless resources. Hence the necessity of education in this line. Right here in our great Empire State opportunity constantly is knocking at the door, yet how few appreciate the fact.

When journeying through the agricultural counties of this and adjoining states, is it not a cause for regret to see the many neglected farms, the number of untilled fields and the unharvested crops, while on the other hand, a hurried walk through some of the cities in the larger centers of population would bring to view large numbers of ablebodied men and boys wandering the streets in search of employment and some, perhaps, even begging for food and shelter.

The great West, it seems to me, offers a solution for this much-vexed problem. There homes are to be had for millions, while here in the East many of our larger cities are demanding millions for the care and maintenance of their poor. Is there not here a large field for cultivation? Is it not feasible to develop some plan by which the younger element might be encouraged to leave the crowded environment of the cities, wherein nothing but dependence and want apparently is ahead of them, and to direct their steps to such sections of the country where work and independence are to be had and where poverty is practically unknown?

It is most unfortunate that the real conditions surrounding the poor are practically unknown to such a large number of people. If those among us, possessing enough of the goods of this world with sufficient to spare, had a true knowledge of the real conditions of the poor, gained by actual experience, there would exist more true charity, more genuine happiness and less selfishness. The plaint is very frequently heard that the gulf separating rich and poor constantly is widening. If it is then is it not time for us to pause and consider who is responsible for the conditions producing such a situation? Have we used any efforts to close the breach? Charity is the bridge that will span that widening gulf, and personal service is the material from which the bridge readily may be constructed.

Millions annually are donated by the rich for the support of hospitals, for the advancement of education and science, but the generous givers, many through their benefactions, have lost the opportunity of being the recipients of that pleasure, of that gratitude, of that look of appreciation shown by the poor mother when shelter for herself and babes has been furnished for another month, or when food for an additional week has been provided for those dependent upon her. If there were more of this spirit of giving one's self, if this form of benefaction were more generally extended, there would be heard less of socialism and anarchy. The home is the unit of society. A state may boast of its great men of commerce, proudly may it point to its men of learning, to its skilled scientists and its famous men of art, yet the fact remains that no state may ever rise above the average of its homes. Admitting this principle, we must likewise acknowledge that the first and principal work of charity is the care and relief of the needy poor in their homes.

Rent is the dreadful spectre constantly confronting those possessed of limited resources. The months succeed each other with lightning-like rapidity and with the advent of each new month comes another demand for rent. It is something which is never forgotten, and is nearly as much dreaded by those interested in charity work as by the poor themselves. The rent question is most perplexing and payments for this purpose quickly reduce the funds of societies whose resources are sadly limited. Yet, all things considered, we cannot do otherwise than strongly recommend the payments of rent when necessary, as in many cases such payment means the holding together of the family. If the rent remains unpaid it results in the forcible eviction of the poor family. The scanty furnishings of their household, gotten together by many sacrifices, are thrown into the street and the poor unfortunates driven possibly to discouragement and despair. Who can figure the consequences? Frequently it is followed by the breaking up of the home forever, the separation of children from their parents, with the added possibility of never again being reunited to them. The thought is dreadful, doubly so because the reduction of the poor unfortunates to such dire straits could, in most instances, have been avoided by the outlay of a small sum.

When an appeal for alms is received, from a destitute family, it is customary with all relief-giving societies before granting any aid, to make an investigation of the conditions surrounding the applicant. While entirely proper, such investigations, however, should not be too painfully rigid, and where actual want and destitution are found, relief should be extended at once, even though the conditions, as revealed by the investigation, should prove unsatisfactory. This course of procedure is especially necessary when children are involved.

The granting of the material relief always should be but the stepping stone in our systematic efforts to secure some permanent good or improvement in the condition of those we seek to relieve. If in the course of our investigation we discover indifference, lack of thrift, drunkenness, or any other evil situation which might be remedied, we should labor zealously for its eradication, proceeding cautiously, however, and all the while exercising patience and charity. Cures of this character take a reasonable length of time to effect, especially if we wish to accomplish any lasting good or permanent improvement. Religion will be found a most powerful and influential factor in the work, therefore it behooves

us to stimulate the spirit of religion in our poor. This recommendation for the injection of religion into our works of charity is made to all, irrespective of sect or creed. Unhappily the spirit of the times seems to be drifting away from all religious devotions. Separate charity from religion and you have not charity — you have something which must be designated by some other name. Therefore, if we are to work under the banner of charity, that banner must include religion.

Benjamin Kidd, in his treatise on Social Evolution, says, "Religion has a definite function to perform in society. Individual character is deeply affected. The course of history proves the whole character of social development and continues to be profoundly influenced by it. Religion has left its indelible mark on our laws, ethics and morals. During the last nineteen centuries, the greatest progress of the world has been made in countries where the deepest and truest religious convictions prevail." These are the words of a non-partisan writer, referring to the cumulative effect of all religious views. Sad indeed would be the lot of the unfortunate poor if the hope of eternal reward were taken from them. In his misfortune and distress, religion alone can bring the poor man that comfort for which his soul craves. Take away from him that comforting influence and you have done much to drive him into the slough of despondency.

The teaching of self-respect will be found another important adjunct in the work of uplifting the poor. Hence it should be the constant endeavor of all engaged in charity work to cultivate in the poor a spirit of self-respect and ambition. Many years of association may have obscured their vision of the possibilities awaiting them. Perhaps they may never have had anyone to extend to them the helping hand of advice. A word only may suffice to open up to them a vista of a brighter future, a greater field of endeavor and may inculcate in them the pride of a higher ambition.

We never can give more to the poor than the opportunity to help themselves. Cultivate in them a desire to get above their present surroundings, teach them to be more self-reliant and you have done much to place them upon the right road leading to a better and brighter future.

MR. UNDERHILL (Continuing): The next paper, ladies and gentlemen, will be by the Rev. John Mullany of St. John's Rectory, Syracuse, New York.

REV. JOHN J. MULLANY: My paper deals not with the statistical side of charity, but with an appeal to all, Christian and Hebrew, Catholic and Protestant, to unite in the great work of uplifting our fellow brothers and sisters. Charity is not unlike mercy: It blesses him who gives and him who receives; it droppeth as the gentle rain from heaven upon the earth beneath; it hath a mighty power for good, and that power is best expressed in the title of this paper,— Personal Service. To the poor, the fallen and the helpless, it is the law of God and of life that, to give one's life for another is to secure real life—life everlasting for one's self. That charity is the greatest of all virtues needs no demonstration. As such, it is acknowledged by all. This heavenly-born gift is superior to the light of faith and to the sweet smile of hope. Indeed, it is the fruitful mother of all the heavenly virtues. Divine faith and radiant hope fondly nestle at her life-giving breast.

It is all very well to call on the state, on the nation, or the city for aid during periods of great need and dire distress, but, to make this the rule of all those in want and misery, will lower that which was so exalted and so earnestly recommended by Jesus Christ during His entire earthly career. Every reasonable man is opposed to any system of relief and uplifting of God's poor that weakens the will. The gentle, sympathetic Jesus, during His entire earthly career, taught the lesson that our charity for God's poor is a great aid to our real progress in spiritual life. In the beautiful lesson of The Good Samaritan, we get a wonderfully majestic idea of the love of our neighbor. This love is not to be limited to blood relationship or national lines, but is to include all mankind regardless of creed or color. In the parable of the loaves and the fishes in the power for the good and the love that went out from the person of Jesus to those in misery and to those that followed Him, we get a glimpse of what He wished His followers to do then and what He wants them to do now. We have been made our brothers' keepers and the saviors of our sisters, and thus we are bound by the great law of love to lift them up and to rescue them from sin and shame and lead them back to a life of honor and virtue.

The late John Boyle O'Reilly was right when he ridiculed the cold, statistical Christ of the world. "The poor you will always

have with you" was a wonderful statement: It was a legacy that we may not throw aside or bequeath to others. Had Christ desired the world to formulate a system of institution to take the place of the work of love among His poor, He would have done so. The simple wave of His hand would have worked that wonder. That this was not done, is suggestive, for I believe that it was His purpose to put the poor in our pathway to better them, and, in bettering them, to better ourselves. Charity is a great aid to humility, the queen of all virtues. By the practice of a virtue, we progress in virtue. How is charity to help us if our ears, eyes, hands, hearts and pocket-books are to be replaced by a vast system of state machinery, which we may call socialism. If what I say is not true, who will explain the parable of the lily of the field that we are asked to consider, that toils not, spins not, yet is arrayed as Solomon, even in all his glory, never was arrayed? How about the sparrow that falls not unnoticed? What about the bread cast forth upon the running waters, to be returned so manifold? Are we to give up all these beautiful angelic messages?

There are ways and means to help the helpless besides those employed by the state. A beginning of a better life for the poor man and the unfortunate man is often possible through personal contact, while seldom or never through the municipalized method. One can give the poor man work, one can help to educate the young and thus one can make the poor to look at life through the right angle of the lens. One can get him to see life through the medium that magnifies virtue and increases happiness. Personal service for the poor is far more helpful and far more reaching than any organized system. The poor asks aid only till such time as the recipient is able to help himself. It is not idle verbiage to say that the Christ-like act of charity helps him who gives as well as him who receives. It makes the needy, the poor man, feel that he is not entirely forsaken and it opens the heart of the other, the giver, as the soft rain and the gentle sunshine open the buds and flowers and ripen the crops and the fruits of the earth. The end aimed at and the methods employed will root out degradation and helpless dependence. There are, in man, active forces that should be energized. Spiritual powers, no matter how rich one's possessions, cease to be valuable if left inactive. Indeed, there is spiritual atrophy. This is a notorious fact which was well known to the thoughtful for a long time. All must admit this,

once the subject is thoroughly understood. Self-sacrifice embodies what is best in uplifting and character building. How is one to build character except by making sacrifices? All the forces of the soul should be enlisted in the good work.

To neglect any is to let them all go by default. The will should be made to work against the repugnance that instinctively repels the poor, particularly the poor that are suffering and sickly and diseased. If I ask you to read the Holy Gospels, it is because I am well aware of their importance and value. For instance, take the wonderful words spoken by our blessed Lord to His disciples: "Whatever you do to the least of these, that you do unto Me."

These are the words that explain the wonders of Christian charity that we daily witness; those religious orders and societies of men and women so multiplied and varied: Some nursing the sick, others protecting the orphan; others again rescuing the fallen girl from the path of vice and shame and leading her back to a life of honor and virtue; taking up the little waifs that crime and poverty have forsaken, and caring for them with a mother's love and solicitude; or braving death on the battle-field to comfort the wounded and dying; or succoring the neglected and the forlorn in the plague-stricken city — these are some of the marvels that only a Divine power can accomplish,— these are the perpetual miracles wrought by God's grace and the sweet condescension which accepts the good done to the lowly as done to Himself: "What you do to the least of these, that you do unto Me."

Then we have in the gospels of our blessed Lord the young lawyer's question: "What shall I do to be saved?" Jesus answering said "What is written in the law? How readest thou?" Let us beware. God's law is God's law, and it must be obeyed. We cannot consistently turn over to others what is written in the law that we must do ourselves, for in the lawyer's question and Christ's remarks, our duty is plainly pointed out.

"Thou shalt love the Lord, thy God, with thy whole heart and with thy whole soul, with all thy strength and mind, and thy neighbor as thyself." Mark well what is written in the law. Love divine, love of God and of our neighbor is there fixed as firmly as the firmament above us. How can we love either if we go not near them? Read again the parable of the Good Samaritan. Was ever a word of God wasted? Was there ever a word of His with-

out a high and broad and deep and holy purpose? Which of the three that were named by our dear Lord in this sympathetic story was neighbor to the man who was in need? Well, ladies and gentlemen, the young man answered as you and I and all of us must answer if life and death are not meaningless.

Then again, in the story of the widow's mite, there is a clear meaning. Let the world take heed of it. Whatever we give to the poor should be given without the flourish of trumpets. The warning is written into all the gospels containing the message from Heaven as to how we should help the poor. In this way we will be able to lay up treasures in Heaven. Remember, too, the words uttered to the young man who rushed into the roadway and threw himself before Christ, saying, "Master, what shall I do that I may be perfect?" The answer was direct and simple: "Go and sell whatever thou hast and give it to the poor." This is all in the law, and our earthly legislators cannot cut it away, nor loosen its bonds. Christian love is not to be doled out like medicines. It is so necessary to our spiritual life that Christ promised us that the poor would always be with us so that we might practice this heavenly virtue. Charity must be as the sunlight—penetrating, purifying and making sweet the dark places in human life; it must be as the gentle rain from Heaven, ripening the harvest in our hearts for the Reaper. Love is love, charity is charity, compassion is compassion, and these are as an angel's flight. It is a great law that I announce, a law as sweet and as sacred as life itself. It has helped humanity in the past; it will help humanity in the future. It is a law, the great law of love, of divine love. Beware then how you build! Build not beyond nor outside the law; attempt not a system to replace what Christ wanted, worked for and commanded. Hold fast to the old sweet form and put the other in its place only so far and as often as the weakness of men's ways hath led them astray from the sweet springs that gush up to the generous giver, to him who loves his neighbor as our heavenly Father would have him love them. My plea is as much for the rich as for the poor. I would not see any class of men deprived of the opportunities of doing good. Mark well my message. I love and pity the poor, those heavily laden, but I pity the rich more who are wanting in the Christ-like spirit of love. This I would instill deeply into your hearts and souls. It is the sweetest, though a thorny narrow pathway, that leads up to God and eternal life, and the seekers after eternal life will be the best and safest leaders for you to follow.

Such are the principles of the spirit of personal service. They are the opposite of the spirit of the world. Now, the "spirit of the age" is one of selfishness, as we see daily exemplified in every condition of life, from the highest to the lowest: The rich man, aiming at greater wealth, reckons little with the misery of his fellow-man, while the poor man is bitten by the same monster — selfishness — and each strives to get the most money for the least labor, and little cares he who may be pushed aside or crushed in the struggle, provided he may be advanced. "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself" is fast becoming an obsolete commandment, because Christian principles have become old-fashioned and are being relegated to the past, when men were rich if they possessed \$10,000, and the laborer was content with a modest competence. The selfishness of the world is killing the noblest attributes of man, so that in his pursuit of self-gratification, he is becoming a mere animal, seeking only animal satisfaction — high-bred animals among the rich, if you will, nevertheless, just as much of an animal as the types found in the slums of our great cities, and the more vicious of the two, as the poor man's powers to brutalize others is, fortunately, restrained to a very circumscribed sphere, whilst the rich have unlimited scope for evil.

There was a time when to care for the poor and needy was a part of every-day duty with the rich, and to share one's crust with the less fortunate was the instinct of the poor, but the shibboleths of to-day are: "Every man for himself." "Look out for No. 1," "The survival of the fittest," "The race to the strong," "Might is right," etc. We see it on the street cars where strong men occupy the seats and frail women stand; we see it in the reckless dash of automobiles, careless of human life, that the momentary pleasure of the occupants might be intensified; we read of it at times of great catastrophes and calamities, when men dash helpless women and children aside in a rush to save their own worthless lives; and we have plentiful proofs of it in the childless homes where parental love is sacrificed to this modern Moloch.

Now, this dark portent appertains only to the general trend of the times, the world of to-day, the world that ignores God and Jesus Christ — for there is a spirit opposed to all this, a spirit (as I have shown) animated by faith, hope and charity which lives in the hearts of noble men and women despite the assaults

of false philosophy. Perhaps never in the history of the world has so much money been expended in the care of the poor and the fallen as distinguishes the present century. But it should be remembered that it is not the money spent that uplifts fallen humanity, but it is the touch of the kindly hand, the gentle look and the sound of the friendly voice. Money of course is needed plentifully to oil the wheels and keep the machinery and main-springs in order, but the personal interest and the sympathetic service of men and women is much more needed. "Man does not live by bread alone." He is not all animal. He has a higher nature that mere bread will never satisfy no matter how palatable it may be made. Therefore, it is the giving of kindly words, more than the giving of meat and bread, that will ultimately lift the fallen and strengthen the weak.

The social condition of the poor in our great cities is a disgrace to our boasted civilization. I here refer to the atrocities of sanitary conditions which exist, and the abomination of tenement dwellings which are permitted to shelter human beings. It is unbelievable almost that such degradation and squalor would be tolerated, as characterize the congested districts of all our large cities. Landlords seem absolutely dead to conscience, and, therefore, the law should galvanize them into some sense of humanity so that the wretched human beings paying rents, that are more frequently exorbitant than otherwise, be entitled to some kind of rights and privileges in return for the money extorted for so-called habitations. Every building that contains those barbarous dark rooms, where neither light nor air enters, should be razed to the ground so that not one of them should remain to shame our American progress of which we proudly boast. We are largely creatures of environment, influenced by our physical and moral surroundings. What may we expect from districts where environment is so powerfully debasing, and where a vast population of human derelicts, maimed and distorted mentally and morally, are so poorly housed? Vast enterprises are undertaken, vast sums expended yearly to alleviate the sufferings of the poor, but until environment is changed, little can be effected in their social uplifting. The intelligent men and women actively engaged in the great philanthropies represented at this Conference are straining every energy to obtain the erection of better buildings for the poverty-stricken and the struggling masses, and we wish them God-speed from our inmost hearts.

As a large proportion of Catholics are constantly the objects of our care and solicitude, it is only fitting that we should express sincere appreciation of the benefits bestowed and the devotedness exercised by the great non-Catholic philanthropies. There was a time in their history when distinctly earnest, honest people imagined it the highest kind of duty, the truest kind of charity, to try and rescue from superstition the recipients of their benefactions, but more enlightened times have dawned upon us and, to-day, there is no such mistaken zeal animating the great charities of our large cities, especially that of New York. They wisely recognize the fact that philanthropy, however exalted, can never benefit the material man alone, and that the spiritual man must be left to his spiritual guides and teachers. They confine themselves to the material and social betterment of their beneficiaries, leaving religion to those whose vocation it is to teach, interfering not at all with conscience, except to energize it, if possible, to higher and holier ideals.

This fact cannot fail to unite in friendly co-operation Catholic and Protestant, Christian and Hebrew, for the one obstacle that prevents union is that of conscience. "A man's conscience is his king," and he who is traitor to his conscience is a traitor indeed. Let us have co-operation, ladies and gentlemen; friendly interchange of idea and all that goes toward union of forces in the uplifting of the weak and unfortunate. God knows there is little enough left in the human heart of those holier impulses that spring from love of one's neighbor, without striving to render that mite of charity mechanical. Scientific methods, if you will, for the heart ungoverned by the head would be frequently unwise in its charity, but let the heart be heard, nevertheless, and hearkened to more often than it is nowadays when, even in charity endeavor, there is danger of admitting the human theory, the pagan idea, that only the best should survive.

Personal service, the giving of one's self to the cause of uplifting poor fallen humanity, must spring from the heart to be successful. If it is mechanical and scientific, it may improve material conditions, but it will never reach the human heart and, without influencing the heart, the real betterment of a fellow-being is but superficial and transitory. Reform is from within outward, not from the outside.

I wish to have it understood that I am not opposed to the state. I think the state is doing good work and protecting itself; but this is the Catholic viewpoint.

THE CHAIRMAN: The Rev. Father Mullany's paper will be discussed by Francis H. McLean, field secretary for the extension of organized charity, New York City.

MR. McLEAN: Discussing this paper without opportunity for reading it beforehand, but listening to it with great interest, I would say that there are one or two phases of the subject upon which I will speak. First, the personal service idea so beautifully presented by Father Mullany is something which should be presented to us at frequent intervals, even though presented without all the beauty Father Mullany has given to it. One of my university professors on a college day asked where we would be or what our world would amount to if it were not for men, considered mostly feather-brained, who were in the van of human progress and suggesting forward steps. He had in mind those who have in mind suggestions for revolutionizing the world; and though he recognized that no system was complete to change conditions, yet nevertheless out of the social unrest in these men in their conception of the possibilities of progress has grown human progress, and their ideals mark the next step forward.

When this subject was first considered, I believe the title was a little defective. It read: Personal Service versus the Spirit of Unrest, and looking at it from the standpoint of social unrest as the spirit of the age, we must grant that that is the leaven which is working the whole field.

Now it seems to me that this is an old argument — there is nothing new about it — but we must re-emphasize the relation of personal service and social unrest, as that is the question continually coming up in connection with curative and preventive work. To me nothing is more ridiculous than to say there is one field preventive and the other field curative. It seems to me that those who claim in the curative work that we have reached such a stage that nothing more can be made in the way of advance have forgotten the significance quite as much as these advanced economists. For after all, suppose we have the idealists' conditions for approaching the Utopian condition, does any one realize that all conceptions of what poverty means would change as radically as during the last 100 or 200 years? As was brought out in the papers on the standards of living, poverty means a good deal. It meant 200 years ago the limited amount of substances which would keep people alive; and now it is made, with our knowledge of preventable diseases, to cover their having enough for their

easy fall into disease. Perhaps we have not advanced more than that, but I think most of us in dealing with needy families believe we should consider that life is something more than the material; and we should consider that until families have had enough in the way of recreation, they may be a little further from the margin, but they are still liable to topple over into temptation.

So it is that the question comes up: Suppose we had the Utopia, would it mean there would be no poverty? Granting there would be no poverty as it is to-day, it is undeniable that there would be even then families living below the normal which we felt it was justifiable for a human being to live under. Personal service never in the history of the world can ever lose its vitality and importance; and I mean by that, personal service in the curative field, and in dealing with families in their homes as well as in the larger aspects.

If you will recall it, the theosophical basis of the discussion on the standard of living, as heard here, is going back to the realization that it does not mean simply the material side or the larger social movement, but at the same time it means what Dr. Devine so well indicated, namely, education; and that education along community and personal lines must work together. For instance, in the field of standard of living, it is apparent that many other things influence education; but how to make a man get the most of every five and ten cents he earns is a thing which the social worker must deal with. That particular reform was admitted years ago in organized charity work, and yet it was thrown into the background by these other large questions.

I am coming to this point: That while the workers in our field are sympathetic with those who have planned these economical systems in advanced fields of thought; while they sympathize with their ideals, they realize also that, granting the justification and workability of even the most advanced scheme, that there still remains the personal work of education to be done. So it is that there is this need of going back every now and then to this ideal of personal service and realizing that it must ever form an integral part of any social system, and that there should be no separation between preventive and curative work.

THE CHAIRMAN: We regret that we will have to take out the general discussion, owing to time; therefore, I will ask Mr. Persons to come to the platform.

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W. FRANK PERSONS: It has long been accepted as true that the best way to help others is to help them to help themselves. Efficient modern charity has made a consistent effort to put this precept into practice. It is accordingly noteworthy that the class of dependents who are the most obvious objects of charity and who for ages were regarded as the accepted types of those most worthy of the commiseration and assistance of benevolent individuals should be the latest to receive help of this character.

"The halt, the lame and the blind" have not been without meagre opportunities for specialized education intended to render them self-supporting, and there have been incidental efforts to find employment for those who have received such training. The first employment bureau for handicapped persons, however, was opened less than three years ago under the auspices of The Charity Organization Society of New York City. It is the purpose of this bureau to take these unfortunates as they are and to find employment, suited to their physical and mental condition, in which they may be wholly or partially self-supporting. An able-bodied person cannot register in the bureau. There is no training school connected with it. No relief is administered through the bureau although the great majority of those who receive its services are actually dependent entirely or in part upon others for support. Its work is remedial in that it is the means of restoring to self-dependence many who, on account of disabilities, have been unable through their own unaided efforts, to find work of any kind. It thus tends to lighten the load of relief work which the community must carry. Its work is preventive in that it is the means of placing persons who are in impaired health, mental or physical, in employment, favorable to the arrest or cure of their disease. It thus tends to arrest the progress of those on the way to chronic invalidism and permanent disability. Its work is educational in that it is the means of bringing to the attention of employers, persons able to do faithful and valuable work and in that it awakens a feeling of responsibility on the part of such employers toward their weaker brothers. It is educational in a broader sense in that it becomes a means of indicating the number of handicapped individuals in the community who are objects of charity, or at least, who are not self-supporting and something of the reasons for such disability and dependence. And again, because it demonstrates that individuals seriously handicapped are capable of employment and that great economic waste can be

avoided. Further, the experience of the bureau has shown the great need for special industrial training, particularly for the younger persons starting life under the heavy handicap of ill health or partial disability.

The Special Employment Bureau for the Handicapped in New York City was organized by the Charity Organization Society in April, 1906, in response to the demands of its own work. The society makes every effort to develop any latent capacity for work that may be discovered in any member of a family under its care with a view to rendering possible and hastening the time when the family may be restored to self-support. But special organization is necessary to find employment for individuals so disabled that they are unable to find work through the agency of regular employment bureaus or through the necessarily casual and desultory efforts of district agents overwhelmed with other duties. And special and continuous study is required to discover a sufficient variety of opportunities for the employment of persons suffering every variety of partial disability and representing every degree of diminished capacity. Furthermore, each applicant must be carefully studied to determine precisely his capacity for work and the kind of surroundings in which he must be placed to safeguard his health and to enable him most fully to realize his possibilities. The bureau has been fortunate in having for its agent a trained nurse of unusual sympathy, tact and insight into character. The success of its work has been due very largely to her ability to inspire employers with a willingness to co-operate and to the sound judgment and untiring persistence she has displayed in choosing and securing employment of a suitable kind and the places appropriate for particular individuals. The bureau endeavors to find employment for any person handicapped physically, mentally or socially, who will make a personal application at its office. For the purpose of its record, a careful system of classification of applicants has been adopted. Each division in this classification is subdivided under two separate headings. A record is kept of the kind of disability the particular applicant has, as, for instance, that he has lost a hand. In addition, it is recorded whether or not he has any training which would fit him for any particular employment, and also whether or not his disability was caused by an accident or injury to health due to his previous employment. The kind of work obtained for applicants and whether it is temporary or steady is recorded in each instance. When employment is

secured which may be expected to continue indefinitely, or which actually continues for a period exceeding four weeks, this is regarded as a placement in steady work. As a matter of fact, many of the placements recorded as temporary have been the means of enabling the beneficiaries of the bureau to find employment for themselves in steady work, because they have been enabled thereby to gain the advantage of a reference.

The first of the divisions within which applicants are classified is that assigned to the "aged;" the next — and a very important group — are the "crippled," comprising those who have lost an arm or a foot, and those with disabled limbs, or with disabled back or side. Under the division "invalids" are included those suffering from tuberculosis, circulatory diseases, nervous diseases, and those whose health is so impaired that they are unable to continue in their usual occupation or to find suitable employment without special assistance. The division entitled "convalescents" is assigned to those recovering from acute diseases, who are unable during convalescence to undertake their usual trades or occupations but for whom only temporary jobs need to be procured.

The other divisions, each of which is self-explanatory, are as follows: "partially blind;" "defective in hearing or speech;" "mentally diseased;" those having "bad industrial records," and those having "criminal records." A further classification is reserved for those suffering from "more than one handicap;" and since this category is not used except when absolutely required, it is instructive to note that 108 persons who applied for work during the last fiscal year were so classified. Of these 108 applicants, twenty-two were placed in temporary employment and thirty-six in steady employment, the latter at wages averaging \$7.25 a week. During the same twelve months ending September 30, 1908, 204 persons who were seriously handicapped by their age made application at the bureau. Of these, seventy-nine were placed in steady work at wages averaging \$7.50 a week, and forty-nine were placed in temporary employment. During the same period applications were received from 264 cripples. Of this number, fifty-seven had been disabled by accident or injury to health due to the nature of their previous employment; the remainder, or 207, had become incapacitated through causes not connected with their previous employment. Of the thirteen applicants who had lost a hand, it was found that five were so disabled by accident in their previous employment. Three of the thirteen were wholly untrained for any

kind of work. Four of these one-armed applicants were placed in steady employment at wages averaging \$6.87 per week. One is employed as telephone operator; one as watchman; one as domestic servant; one as janitor, or care-taker.

Within the larger group, known as cripples, are classified those having disabled limbs due to paralysis, old fractures, blood poisoning, tubercular joint lesions, necrosis, rheumatism and the loss of fingers. Two hundred and twenty-three such persons applied for work during the year, of whom fifty-seven were placed in steady employment at wages ranging from \$3 to \$24 and averaging about \$7 a week. In addition, thirty-nine were placed in temporary work. Those placed in steady work were employed as follows: Nine clerks; three janitors and furnace-men; one messenger; three porters; six factory workers; twenty-one domestic servants; two attendants; six useful men; four seamstresses; one caretaker; one carpenter. It has been found impossible to secure work for the totally blind unless they are first specially trained. This training must be prolonged and requires special instruction and the equipment that can be provided only in an institution. The Special Employment Bureau, accordingly, has ceased to register applicants who have entirely lost their eye sight unless so qualified by experience or training that they are actually employable. The partially blind are, however, often quite unable of themselves to secure suitable work, and to them the bureau can render valuable assistance. Forty-seven persons with defective eyesight made application for work during the year. Of this number fifteen were placed in steady employment at wages ranging from \$2.50 to \$14 a week, with an average of \$6.90 a week. Two became janitors; two, messengers; two, factory workers; one, a day laborer; five, domestic servants; three, useful men; and four were placed in temporary work.

The "mentally diseased" comprise the convalescent insane and those afflicted with a mild form of epilepsy. Thirty-eight such persons applied during the year; thirty-nine were placed in steady work, indicating that some who had made application before the present year were later placed in employment. The wages in this instance average slightly more than \$7 a week. Twenty-eight of the thirty-nine were placed in employment as domestic servants, a very suitable disposition of such cases, because a normal home life and its surroundings are conducive to permanent recovery.

During the year referred to, 1,217 persons registered in the bureau; 477 obtained steady work at wages averaging \$6.98 a week and 234 obtained temporary employment; a total of 711 persons, who were actually helped. This has been regarded as a fairly satisfactory accomplishment, considering the very great difficulty in securing work of any kind for even able-bodied persons on account of the recent panic and the consequent industrial depression. It must be remembered, too, that a large proportion of these applicants have acquired the habit of idleness, and have come to regard themselves as quite incapable of self-support. It is easiest to find employment for those who are physically capable but handicapped by mental disease or by bad industrial or immoral record. This is indicated by the success attained in placing the convalescent insane. A further illustration of this fact is found in the bureau's dealing with those having a bad industrial record. During the year forty-eight such persons applied for work and twenty-eight were placed in steady work at wages averaging \$7.60 a week. Of those having a criminal record, eleven applied and five secured steady work at \$8 a week. The best market for the labor of handicapped persons without special training obviously must be found in the unskilled occupations. It is there that we have usually looked for work. No effort has been made to conduct a bargain counter business. We have insisted on the applicant receiving wages commensurate with the value of his services.

There have been no precedents to guide in the work of this Special Employment Bureau. There is apparently no royal road to success in finding employment for its beneficiaries. A special effort and plan is necessary in each case. A full knowledge of the character of the applicant, of his present capacity and previous record must be obtained. Often the diagnosis and advice of a physician is required. It is equally necessary to have a fairly complete understanding of the character of the employer and of the nature of the work which he offers. The nicest judgment must be exercised in adapting the employee to the work and to the employer.

One day a girl came to our office who was certainly the most helpless and hopeless object that could be imagined. One hand and one foot were paralyzed and she was slightly defective mentally. Some days later, as the agent entered her office, returning from her search for jobs, her assistant, who was new at the work,

observed casually, "I have placed Isabella." The agent inquired, "How?" And the reply was, "Persuasion." The girl is still at work as a domestic servant in the country home where she was placed more than a year ago. After she had been one day with this family we were requested to take her back. A little judicious persuasion resulted in her prolonged stay. She is happy and contented and affectionately regarded by her employer.

An Austrian, thirty-four years of age, who is an accomplished linguist and an expert riding-master was unable to earn his living because of failing eyesight and made application at the bureau for work when on the verge of starvation. He was given temporary employment as a demonstrator in a tuberculosis exhibit. An officer of an insurance company, who heard him talk at the exhibit, offered him a position at \$18 a week, which he accepted. A man, practically without memory, who had been employed as a valet by one of the most admired of our American actors, retired from that position because he could not stand being sworn at and made a target for boots and other articles ready to the hand of the impetuous employer. He, however, just fits into a place as valet and general utility man in a whist club, where he was placed by the bureau, and where he receives \$50 a month and gratuities for his services. A man whose right hand had been amputated and who had served two sentences in Sing Sing Prison — a total of nine years — was placed in employment as a clerk checking the amount of coal in the cars which come out of a mine in Virginia. He is faithful, satisfactory and contented and manifests his gratitude by frequent communications to the bureau.

The experience gained in the bureau thus far has made very evident the necessity for three lines of special effort and study in dealing with employment for handicapped persons. First, special industrial training for particular groups of handicapped persons, notably the convalescent insane, those discharged with their disease arrested from sanatoria for the treatment of tuberculosis and the crippled. The beneficent result of such special training is evident in the ease with which it is possible to secure employment for deaf-mutes, and for the partially blind, who have had the opportunity of industrial training. They are under no special disability in securing work.

Second, a study of the dangerous trades and the consequences of such employment on the health and capacity of those so employed. The American Association for Labor Legislation has

undertaken a study of the causes and consequences of lead poisoning. Those employed in lead works, and painters who use paint containing lead, in large numbers suffer disability or death from this poison. Many other dangerous trades are equally deserving of such attention.

Third, a study of all kinds of employment, and especially of factory work, to discover the particular places available for the employment of persons suffering disability of every kind and degree.

The Special Employment Bureau in New York has made a start in this third line of investigation. For a year, an expert investigator has studied factory work. A number of factories were selected, representing 140 different trades, ranging from the making of pianos to the manufacture of jewelry. These factories have been visited with the double purpose of ascertaining what opportunities they afford for employment, and of informing the prospective employer of the exact nature of the work of the bureau and of the kind of employees that can be provided.

Each of these factories was carefully inspected with regard to the following conditions: Whether training is necessary before the work can be undertaken; whether there are trade union restrictions which must be met before employment can be obtained, and if so, whether the trade union concerned will accept as members handicapped men or women; the whole question of wages; the amount of work and the length of hours in rush as well as in slack seasons; the nature of the work and the amount of skill or physical strength required; the conditions of employment affecting health, as determined both by the nature of the work and by the conditions in the factory; the possibilities for advancement; and the classes of the handicapped persons most adapted to the particular kinds of piecework under consideration.

This investigation was associated with the actual work of the bureau. The investigator had real knowledge of the kinds of persons who apply for employment and her report is of practical advantage in finding work for them. The agent of the bureau can turn to her index and find not only a statement of the different kinds of work which, for instance, a man suffering from heart disease can do, and the precise hygienic and industrial conditions existing in each factory, but also the names and addresses of particular employers who have been visited. She can turn to another index and ascertain exactly what kind of handicapped persons can

be employed in the manufacture of jewelry and the names of particular employers who have already been acquainted with the nature of the work of the Special Employment Bureau. She can ascertain further the particular conditions affecting health which exist in each of these factories and in each of the particular kinds of piecework referred to.

The bureau has engaged an assistant to the agent who will make practical use of the results of this investigation and will extend the information at hand. Another assistant has been engaged to give her entire time to placing, in suitable employment, those convalescing from tuberculosis. This class of partially disabled persons is particularly hard to deal with. The nature of the treatment of this disease and the very special consideration such patients receive in hospitals and sanatoria too often result in the loss of moral energy and resolution. The situation is further complicated by the unwarranted fear of the disease on the part of employers and others in the community, and by the difficulty in securing work in surroundings favorable to the health of the patient.

This special effort to procure appropriate employment for tuberculosis patients is in line with the policy of the bureau to make its work more largely preventive. An ambitious scheme for co-operation with hospitals and dispensaries has been formulated and is being carried into operation. It is hoped that the bureau shall become a place in which any person suffering with heart disease or a nervous disease, or any other illness that may become chronic and result in death or total disability, may find suitable occupation with safety to their future health.

The work of this Special Employment Bureau is capable of very great development, but it is believed that the experiment already has demonstrated that many of the disabled members of society may be enabled to help themselves, and that many may be saved from disability and dependence by providing them with suitable work at the right time.

THE CHAIRMAN: Mr. Persons' paper will be discussed now by Dr. Sydney E. Goldstein, Rector of Social Service Work, Free Synagogue, New York City.

DR. SYDNEY E. GOLDSTEIN: Ladies and gentlemen: I wish I had a few moments in which to illustrate Father Mullany's paper by describing the work of the Free Synagogue itself. In the Free Synagogue we have endeavored to shift the whole structure of congregational life from ritual to congregational. Every member

of our congregation is desired to do something in the way of social work. The topic is Mr. Persons' paper. Mr. Persons has described a very novel and efficient agency that has been a great help for every social worker in New York City.

Mr. Persons has enumerated a number of classes that merit and require special consideration. The time is not sufficient to consider all these classes, but I will limit myself to discussing the class in which I have most experience. That is the large class of handicapped people that come from hospitals and dispensaries. Every patient in a hospital or dispensary is suffering from the handicap. Sometimes it is the family of the patient whose lack of food worries the mind of the patient so much it retards his recovery. Sometimes it is long hours and low wages of the patient preventing him getting well as quickly as he could. Sometimes it is simply the crowded condition of the home in which the patient is compelled to live.

In all of these cases the question is not how to employ the patient with the handicap, but how to get rid of the handicap, either completely or partially. This idea has only recently come to the surface. A few years ago hospitals and dispensaries thought their work was done when they extended to the patient its medical or surgical attendance of which they were capable of giving. We have now realized that there is something more to a sick man than his sickness. That there is something else to be considered. We know that not only tuberculosis but all sickness is a social problem and must be dealt with as such. The point may be expressed in this way: What shall be the unit of treatment in the handicapped of this class? Shall the unit of treatment be the patient and his disease, or shall the unit of treatment be the patient and his business, plus the industrial or home conditions to which the spell of sickness must be charged? Some hospitals and dispensaries are beginning to realize this, and in New York City and elsewhere they have established what is known as the convalescent relief, or social service department. The nurse in charge of the convalescent relief or social service department is expected to add to the surgical and medical care that the doctor and surgeon gives, the supplemental and necessary care of the social worker. How needful and how advantageous this is it is almost impossible to realize, except by giving a series of illustrations, but time does not permit this, so instead I will refer you to the exhibit proper by the Bellevue and Allied Hospitals, under the guidance of Miss Wadley, who is in charge of

the social work at Bellevue. There you will find pictures, photographs and charts which will show the need for this work. During the last year the question has arisen among those interested in the work, "Does the work pay?" "Does it pay to give this supplemental work to the sick?" It is almost impossible to answer this to the satisfaction of those who are parsimonious in the matter of issuing bonds to hospitals. We do not know what the sick costs us. We know that \$35,000,000 are expended in the hospitals of this country; but that is about all we do know, and we shall probably never know any more till either a conference or similar body urges the establishment in every city of a central hospital bureau, which will keep a permanent record of admissions and readmissions to all hospitals, which will endeavor to study the social history of each patient, and thus calculate the cost to the community.

But we can say that every patient stays a certain length of time. The average stay is twenty-one days; the average cost in the marine hospital is about \$2 per day; that means that a spell of sickness costs the community \$42, plus the loss in wages and the amount of money required to maintain the family during the stay in the hospital of the patient. If the patient gets out and suffers a relapse, that means \$42 more. Suppose instead of going out to work and to the same unsanitary conditions which were responsible for his original condition, suppose he had gone to a convalescent home where he would have received good food, fresh air and rest. For two weeks' stay that would cost approximately \$12. The patient then could have returned to his work with normal strength. In that one case there would have been a saving of \$30. Multiply \$30 by the number of probable relapses which we have, due to lack of convalescent care, and you will realize the necessity for the establishment of such bureaus for the handicapped in hospitals in every city in the country. There are others. One class is the homeless. There are many homeless young men and young women in our institutions. What do you suppose becomes of the homeless boy of eighteen or nineteen years of age when discharged from a hospital after a spell of typhoid fever or probably only after a spell of starvation? He goes out on the street and gets weaker and weaker, and he develops some other disease, and he drops down to vagrancy or crime. That is what becomes of him unless he is taken hold of and rehabilitated. There is another class troubling us more; that is the case of unmarried mothers. Why this is increasing we do not know. It is probably

due to the recrudescence of the "cadet" system in our city. What do you suppose becomes of the young girl with the baby in her arms, the father nowhere to be found? The State Charities Aid Association has helped us in placing these children, but unless there is someone in the hospital just as she is about to leave, to dispose of her properly, she will probably get out and dispose of her child, possibly in a criminal way, and then return to her old life. New York needs these hospitals very much. Pittsburgh even more. During this last summer, when I was there, I found a very anomalous condition. In New York City the hospitals were overcrowded. In Pittsburgh they were practically depopulated. We tried to explain it and this was the explanation: We find that the hospital census of Pittsburgh rises and falls in direct proportion to the number of mills open or closed in Pittsburgh. This means, of course, that the mills supply the hospitals of Pittsburgh with their cases. There, surely, such a bureau is needed. The point is, we need such bureaus, and we need take care of the handicapped before they become paupers.

THE CHAIRMAN: The session will now adjourn and the Conference stands adjourned until 8 P. M.

Session adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, NOVEMBER 18, 1908.

PROGRAM.

- 8:00 P. M. Business of the Conference.
- 8:30 P. M. Report of the Committee on the Conditions and Regulations of Labor. Chairman, P. Tecumseh Sherman, formerly New York state commissioner of labor.
- 8:50 P. M. Employers' Liability or Workingmen's Compensation, by L. W. Hatch, chief statistician, New York State Department of Labor.
- 9:10 P. M. Discussion. Opened by H. A. Jaggard, superintendent Northern Railroad Company, Elmira.
- 9:20 P. M. General discussion.
- 9:40 P. M. Hours of Labor in Relation to Industrial Efficiency, by Miss Pauline Goldmark, executive secretary of the Consumers' League, New York city.
- 10:00 P. M. Discussion. Opened by H. F. Haserot, president of the Haserot Canneries Company, Forestville, N. Y.
- 10:10 P. M. General discussion.

PRESIDENT ROSENDALE: The Conference will please be in order.

The first order of business is the business of the Conference. Has any member or delegate any business to propose? If so, it will be in order now.

May I say a word in relation to the affairs of the Conference? — You know our finances are those entirely of voluntary subscriptions, and while we are greatly pleased with the registration we have, I want to say that hitherto we have endeavored and we have succeeded in sending to every person who registers a copy of our proceedings. This (indicating a book) represents the last volume of our proceedings, and the volume of the Ninth Conference is quite as large as the last, or even larger, and it will contain all the papers and all the doings of the Conference. This volume costs us to publish about \$1 each copy, and as I say, we endeavor to see that every delegate or member of the Conference, and every one who registers is by that act a member of the Conference, gets a copy of the proceedings.

I want to say we will be very glad to have your financial aid to any extent that any one will be good enough to contribute to the expenses of the Conference and especially toward the publication of our book. The desk is outside and the officers there will be glad to register any who will apply, and also to receive any sum you may be good enough to contribute to the expenses of the Conference. The hour having nearly arrived, and there being no business before the Conference at this time, we will now proceed with the order of our program as announced, by the Report of the Committee on the Conditions and Regulations of Labor. The chairman, P. Tecumseh Sherman, who was formerly a New York commissioner of labor, and whose report will be instructive and interesting, will preside at the meeting.

I take great pleasure, therefore, in presenting to you the chairman of the evening, P. Tecumseh Sherman.

P. TECUMSEH SHERMAN: Ladies and gentlemen, the session this evening will be devoted to the subject of the regulations and the conditions of labor. The order of reports and discussions will be that set forth in the program, of which each one of you, I believe, has a copy. The first number consists of the report of the Committee on the Conditions and Regulations of Labor, which I will now read.

During the past twelve months distress due to lack of employment has been exceptionally widespread and severe. At one time the percentage of idleness among the organized laborers in this state, reporting to the State Department of Labor, rose as high as fifty-five per cent. At the end of March it was thirty-five per cent., and at that date twenty-six per cent. had been continuously idle for the three preceding months. It is probable that the proportion of unemployed among the unorganized, who are in greater proportion the unskilled, was equally high, and their consequent distress even more severe. This lack of employment has been due to general business depression, and not to defective distribution of labor.

But with the return of better times and the probable renewal of the flood of foreign immigration into New York City, the problem of distributing labor will again arise. New York state has never followed the successful example of some other states in establishing a system of free employment agencies; and perhaps rightly, for its conditions are peculiar. It did, however, maintain one free agency in New York City for many years on an annual appropriation of \$5,000, but it was so inadequate that it was monopolized and abused by the lowest class of domestic servants, and was consequently abandoned. A bureau of the Department of Agriculture has for several years successfully but on a small scale distributed immigrants among the farms. In the skilled trades the labor unions themselves successfully distribute their members so long as there is sufficient work in their respective trades. The private agencies are probably the most efficient, but they have been fraught with the gravest abuses and evils. The recent law placing them under inspection has largely eliminated these evils but, it is charged, has led to others. It is, therefore, timely that a Commission on Immigration has recently been appointed in this state, and has taken up the study of this problem.

By an amendment to the state labor law, which took effect October 1st, the duty of enforcing its provisions relative to mercantile establishments in cities of the first class has been transferred to the Department of Labor. Those provisions restrict the hours of labor of children, and of women under twenty-one except in the Christmas season, etc., and require proper toilet-rooms, lockers, etc., for their comfort and welfare.

It is understood that this law has been properly enforced in

Rochester, but imperfectly in Buffalo, and hardly at all in New York City. Therefore, this transfer should be an improvement and should result hereafter in a more thorough enforcement of this law in all the first class cities. But we believe that the substance of this law should be amended to correspond more closely with the factory law in regard to the hours of women. It now places no limitations upon the hours of labor of women over twenty-one or of young women under twenty-one in the Christmas season. In department stores their hours should never be unlimited. Conditions in such stores are as hard and injurious as they are in factories, and there is no reason for the distinction. While it is true that some of the largest department stores voluntarily keep within reasonable hours, there are others that far exceed the limits required by health and humanity.

The sanitary conditions surrounding home work in tenements continue to improve, because the factory inspectors continue to make progress in confining it to those tenements, licensed under the provisions of the factory laws as fit to work in. But this home work is accompanied by much child labor — how much being a doubtful and mooted question. Some believe that these and other evils of home work are so serious that the only practical remedy is to prohibit it altogether. From this opinion others dissent. But undoubtedly this subject calls for study and in time perhaps for further corrective legislation. The tendency of parents among Italian immigrants to force or encourage their young children to work, to the detriment of their health and to the neglect of their education, is manifested not only in tenements but also in other forms of industrial occupation — particularly in the sheds of canning factories. This condition requires correction. It is possible that such correction may be brought about by the voluntary action of employers; otherwise there will be need of further remedial legislation.

It was hoped that this year would see the provisions of the New York statutes restricting the hours of labor of women in factories substantially enforced. The decision of the United Supreme Court in *Muller v. State of Oregon*, sustaining the Oregon law on this subject, had put an end to all reasonable doubts as to their constitutionality, and the prevailing industrial quiet, by reducing the extent of violations, had reduced the size of the task for the factory inspectors. Accordingly, the latter have made an earnest and energetic campaign during the past year to enforce this law, con-

centrating upon those industries and establishments in which there were the most notorious and substantial violations. Unfortunately the lowest courts have almost unanimously sustained the defendants in prosecutions for this offense and have made rulings of law — from which the prosecutor cannot appeal — that renders the statute a dead letter.

The need for restrictions upon hours of labor of women is generally admitted, and it is a special topic for discussion at this session of the Conference. Explicit provisions on this subject have been enacted into our law. To secure their enactment was a comparatively easy and minor step. The greater and more difficult task of enforcing them still remains. It is only fair to say that they are generally complied with by manufacturers; but where not complied with, how practically to enforce compliance remains an unsolved problem. As an incident to the general introduction of immigrant labor, there have arisen in many country localities and industries unsanitary and debasing housing conditions. This is not altogether unnatural, because American employers have been unaccustomed to exercise any paternalistic control over the homes of their employees. But the character of recent immigration has changed the conditions which justified their attitude; and where employers themselves in any way furnish or control the hours of their employees, it has now become necessary for the public welfare for them to see that such homes are proper and kept in proper condition.

Many local Boards of Health have been most derelict in their duty in this respect. It may, however, become desirable that the Department of Labor should be provided with a proper force to supervise such conditions, outside of cities with efficient boards of health. i

By an amendment to the factory laws, which took effect October 1, 1907, the proprietors of factories are required to keep work rooms properly ventilated, and at the same time, and partly as an aid to carrying out this provision, a medical inspector of factories was added to the staff of the factory inspector. The state factory inspector has been enforcing this law energetically, and thereby has aroused some friction and antagonism which may lead to an agitation to secure the repeal of the statute which is modeled on the English law which has long been in successful operation. It is of vital importance to the health and welfare of the working people, and it does not entail the unnecessary hardships and expense upon proprietors that they at first imagine. Therefore,

the public should earnestly support the action of the factory inspector in enforcing this statute, and should oppose any movements to repeal or weaken it.

It has long been a subject of criticism that our industries are suffering a severe handicap from the lack of skilled labor due to the want of industrial training in the American system of education. We are now coming to see that the laboring class also suffer from this cause, and that remedial action is necessary.

There are two extremes of opinion as to what is the remedy. On the one hand it is thought that it will be sufficient to supplement the present grammar schools with trade schools. At the other extreme it is contended that the existing schools are too entirely clerical in their training, that future mechanics must be separated young from those to be educated for clerical pursuits, and given a training in part mechanical at an early age, to be supplemented later by trade schools, to be followed in turn by craft education after they have gone to work. This would require an entire reorganization of the existing public school system for a large proportion of its male pupils; yet it may be necessary. A solution of this question is one of the most important problems of the times. Another subject of vital importance to the welfare of labor, namely, how working men and their families should be insured against or compensated for disabling accidents or deaths, will be discussed as one of the special topics of this session.

We take the liberty of calling to your attention the recent organization of the American Branch of the International Society for Labor Legislation, and recommend it to you for hearty support. To students of labor subjects, its publications are invaluable as an index and guide to recent legislation and publications. Such is the report of the committee.

The first topic for discussion is a very important one and will be treated by Leonard W. Hatch, chief statistician of the New York State Department of Labor. The subject is Employers' Liability or Workingmen's Compensation.

I introduce Mr. Hatch.

LEONARD W. HATCH: Ladies and gentlemen: Twenty thousand factory and shop workers in this Empire State injured by accidents in one year. That, observe, is a list of casualties for only two of the great branches of industry, namely, manufacturing and mining, and does not represent complete figures even for

those. No one can tell what the grand total of killed and wounded in the whole army of industrial workers in this state in a single year is. To know that, one would have to consider the other great branches of industry, especially transportation and building, not to mention agriculture, fisheries and forestry which have their hazards also. For the great transportation industry here are two significant totals from the reports of the Public Service Commission. For the year ended June 30, 1907, there were 2,025 reported injuries to employees (449 fatal) on the steam railroads of the state. In the last six months of 1907 there were 426 casualties to employees (sixty-five fatalities) on street railways reported by telephone to the commission for the first district, which is practically New York City. For the building and construction industry we knew nothing at all as to total figures, but here is a single item that is suggestive. The Central Federated Union in New York City reported the other day after investigation among its members that no less than fifty-five men had been killed in the construction of the new Blackwell's Island Bridge. Manifestly the 20,000 accidents in manufacturing and mining would have to be increased by thousands more before one would approach the total of all industrial accidents in this state in a single prosperous year. But that 20,000, about which we know something in detail, is sufficiently large to give us food for thought. Let that thought be directed for the present to the following points: First, the burden imposed by these accidents; second, who now carries that burden; third, is the burden now justly placed; fourth, if not, where should it be placed, confining ourselves all the time as closely as possible to New York state.

First, the burden entailed by industrial accidents. This comprises two elements; the one the physical suffering of the injured man and the mental anguish of himself or friends, the other the economic loss of wages and medical or funeral expenses. To get an idea of the physical suffering and mental anguish, note the extent of injury suffered in the different accidents. The 20,000 accidents quoted above is merely round numbers based on the 19,431 accidents in factories, shops, mines and quarries in this state which were reported to the Bureau of Factory Inspection in the year ended September 30, 1907. So far as could be judged by reports made usually within a very brief period after the accident (the law requires report of accidents within forty-eight hours of occurrence), 14,298 of these injuries were only temporary. But

many of these temporary injuries were no light matter as to physical suffering. For example, 665 of them involved fractures of bone. But on the other hand there were 2,733 cases in which the injury was plainly permanent and in 2,053 others the injury was so serious as to indicate probable permanent results at the time of the report. Of the 2,733 known permanent disablements, in 112 there was a loss of one or both arms, limbs, hands or feet; in ninety cases the sight of one or both eyes was destroyed; in 1,909 there was a loss of one or more fingers; in 174 cases there were permanent internal injuries. Finally there is a grim death roll of 344, or more than one death for every working day in the year. It needs but a very little imagination stirred by memory of sickness or death in one's own home to make of these cold figures an appalling picture of pain and anguish. Were it not the present purpose to be scrupulously unsensational, the above figures could be clothed with detail as horrid in kind, though not in such mass, as any battlefield description could offer, by simple quotation from the detailed statement of fatal accident cases in the last report of the Bureau of Factory Inspection.

But turn now to the economic burden entailed by accidents. First of all, of course, is the loss of wages. The range of this loss in different cases is simply unlimited. It extends all the way from the man who loses but fifteen minutes of working time for the bandaging of a bruise to the workman whose life is cut off and in whose case the wage loss could be figured only in the capitalized earnings of a lifetime. Information happens to be at hand as to the loss of wages in thirty of the 1907 accidents. These were taken at random. Whether they are typical of all accidents or not is wholly uncertain. On the one hand they probably represent the more serious of non fatal accidents but on the other include no fatal cases. But however typical, they will serve for concrete illustration of the point in hand. The loss of working time in them varied from one day to seventy-five weeks and in the latter case the man was still idle at the time of report. For the thirty cases the total time lost, so far as could be known at the time of report, was 349 weeks. The total loss in wages of these thirty workers was in that time \$4,505. In the case of five, the loss was not over \$25. Twelve lost from \$50 to \$100 and thirteen over \$100, of whom four lost over \$400. The average loss for the thirty was \$150. Compare this with the average annual wage of male factory workers over sixteen years of age in this state

(all of the thirty employees above considered were men over sixteen except one), computed from the figures of the federal census of manufactures for 1905, which was \$579. It will be seen that the average wage loss in these thirty more serious but non fatal accidents was equal to twenty-six per cent. of the average annual wage in manufacturing industries.

But the loss of earnings during the period of the worker's total disability is not always the only wage loss. Of the thirty injured employees above referred to, twelve were reported to be unable, after the accident, to do the same work as before and five returned to work at lower wages than they were receiving prior to the accident. Here is indicated permanently lowered earning capacity with continuous effect on wages thereafter.

In the extreme case of permanent complete disablement such loss rises to that in fatal accidents when of course there is for the family a total loss of wages.

Loss of wages is the chief element in the financial burden of accidental injuries but not the only one. In addition there is the immediate burden of expense for medical care, or burial in fatal cases. Figures for such losses are even more meager than for wage losses. This point was definitely reported in only thirteen of the above thirty cases and in these, the medical expenses varied all the way from \$1 to \$175 except in one very serious case for which that outlay was stated to have been \$500.

Now the mere size of the economic burden entailed by accidents suggested above is not unimpressive. But to realize its true significance it is necessary to consider it in relation to the economic position of the wage earner. Mrs. More in her study of Wage Earners' Budgets found that in 200 wage earners' families in New York City whose average annual income (\$851) was considerably above that of the average male factory worker over sixteen years of age in that city (\$628) the average annual surplus of income over expenditure was \$15.13. It was noted above that in thirty accidents taken at random the average loss in wages was \$150. It was frankly admitted that it was entirely uncertain just how typical these thirty cases are. But in the interests of statistical caution, cut this average wage loss in two, and you still have a loss of income, to say nothing of medical expenses, equal to five times the average surplus found by Mrs. More. Moreover, 153 of her 200 families had a deficit or just came out even at the end of the year. In other words, the economic

burden of industrial accidents often falls where it tend to press down immediately to actual poverty. Mrs. More concluded that one of the chief causes of dependency in the families she investigated was that of "illness or death of principal wage earner."

Among the thirty accident cases here frequently adverted to, and none of them fatal accidents, it actually appears that in nine, other members of the family, wife or children, were compelled to go to work or to work harder as a result of the accident. This was only the first fruit of these catastrophies, such as could be seen within a few months of their occurrence. It is hardly necessary to point out to an audience of those more or less expert or specially interested in charitable work that such economic burdens often work out their full results only in a long course of time. To quote Amos G. Warner in his *American Charities*, "Frequently pauperism does not result until years afterward, when a widowed mother has broken down in the attempt to support her family, or when some aged or incapable relative has been turned adrift from the incapacity of the family to maintain him longer."

Such, hinted at rather than adequately described, is the burden of human suffering and economic loss connected with industrial accidents. It is sufficiently great to demand as a pressing practical problem of justice and humanity earnest inquiry as to where it now rests and whether it ought to rest there.

One part of the burden does and can rest in only one place. The physical pain and mental anguish, save in so far as the latter may be intensified by the economic burden, can by no means be shifted from the injured worker or his friends. Concerning this burden civilized society can entertain but one ideal, namely, all possible prevention of accidents which experience indicates is to be attained primarily by means of vigorously enforced factory laws for the safeguarding of work places, together with the education afforded by museums of safety devices. But the economic burden, whose first incidence is also upon the injured workman or his friends, may be shifted. It has already been indicated that not infrequently some part of the burden ultimately comes upon society at large in the form of public charity due to the dependence of injured workmen or their families.

This, however, amounts rather to an alleviation of the ultimate effects of the burden than to an actual shifting of it and is but a drop in the bucket at the most. The main question con-

cerns the shifting of the burden from employee to employer. This actually occurs at present in one of two ways; by voluntary assumption of some part of the burden by the employer, or by compulsory assessment of it upon him as matter of law.

Voluntary assumption of the burden by employers occurs in various ways. Frequently it takes the direct form of payment of wages in full or in part during disability, or payment of some or all of the medical expenses, or simple donations of a lump sum, or some combination of these forms. A not uncommon form of voluntary assistance appears in employees' benefit associations or relief departments paying accident benefits to which the employer contributes either in cash or by free services of administration. Sometimes an employer will insure his employees collectively with a commercial insurance company and pay some part of the premiums himself. Finally, in a few rare cases, employers maintain a regular system of compensation of their own without cost to employees. To what extent the financial burden of accidents is thus transferred from worker to employer by the voluntary initiative of the latter in these various ways, we are unfortunately without precise information. Some evidence on this point is afforded, however, by the following figures from the report of the State Bureau of Labor Statistics for 1899.

Therein, for a total of 1,657 cases it was found that the employer paid wages in full in fourteen per cent. of the cases, wages in part in two and one-quarter per cent., medical expenses in one and one-third per cent., medical expenses and some other assistance in three-quarters of one per cent., and all costs of the accident in two and one-quarter per cent. In eight per cent. of the cases it was reported that assistance was received from an employers and employees' mutual benefit association and in three and one-fifth per cent. from an insurance company.

Too much ought not to be assumed as to the general applicability of these proportions. But if it be borne in mind that they represent only non fatal accidents and that in the case of mutual benefit associations, relief departments and workmen's collective insurance, the great bulk of accident relief is, as a matter of fact, paid by the employees themselves, and if allowance be made for the use of nominally "voluntary" assistance as a means of escape from legal liability, it seems safe to infer that the portion of the economic burden of industrial accidents now voluntarily assumed by employers in this state is but a small fraction

of the whole. But is there not hope that with advancing enlightenment of employers as to their obligation for the welfare of their employees there will be an extension of this voluntary assumption of the burden? To this question the best evidence available does not afford a hopeful answer.

Passing over an inherent defect in much of such voluntary assistance due to its menace to the worker's independence, a fundamental difficulty in the way of its extension lies in the fact that voluntary assistance, if it is to meet the need at all adequately, must be freed entirely from the element of uncertainty which now attaches to much of it and must take the form of a fixed and permanent system for all accidents. The financial risk involved in such a system is too great for any but the very strongest employers to carry individually, so that for employers, generally, some form of associated insurance would be indispensable. Any movement in this direction, short of a general one for a given industry, would break down before the economic law that the level of competition tends to be controlled by the standard of the least liberal employer. No, admirable as the idea may appear, that employers generally will voluntarily co-operate and assume the burden of industrial accidents, must be classed as a dream which is nearer the millenium than the present day.

This brings us to the vital question in the whole matter. How much of the economic burden of accidents does society, through the voice of law, say the workman may, as of right, shift to the employer and is society now doing justice in this matter? The law which answers this question in New York state is found in the common law of employers' liability for accidents to employees, as it has been slightly modified by two statutes; one, the act of 1902, known as the Employers' Liability Act, the other an act of 1906, usually referred to as the Railway Liability Act. Stripped of legal phrase and ignoring minor qualifications, the law says to the injured workman essentially this: Your employer must exercise due care for your safety while at work, as to place, materials, appliances, competent fellow workmen and rules for conduct of the work, the care due being such as a reasonably prudent man would ordinarily exercise. At the same time you and your fellow workmen must exercise due care to avoid danger.

If now you can prove that the accident was caused by some negligence of your employer as to the above duty and can also prove, if necessary, that you yourself did not neglect to be care-

ful, in any such way as to lead to the accident, and that none of your fellow workmen did (other than superintendents, foremen or those controlling the movement of trains) then you may claim as legal right that the economic burden of the accident shall be shifted to the employer. This right you must assert and prove, however, in a civil suit.

Let us see now how this works in practice and how much good it does the injured workman. Note first, that the method of determining the workman's right places him and his employer in an antagonistic attitude and that they do not stand on equal terms in the contest. Damage suits are never calculated to induce friendly relations between the litigants, and a suit between employer and employee quite as likely as not pits a man earning only a bare subsistence or a widow close to poverty against an opponent (be it the employer or an insurance company who insures him against this liability) with plenty of capital at his back. An illustration of the possible results of this inequality of financial position is afforded by a case of which the particulars happen to be at hand, in which an employee who had been two months idle as the result of an injury and who proposed to bring suit was threatened by the employer with dismissal if he did, and being in pressing need of work was thus forced to abandon the action.

In the second place the method is full of uncertainty and delay. The question of negligence must be determined according to the circumstances of each case, and the circumstances of different accidents vary almost infinitely, with scarcely any two precisely alike. The result is that in the effort to interpret what fulfills that wholly indefinite requirement of "reasonable" care under constantly varying circumstances, judges themselves, to say nothing of juries, constantly fall into error resulting in constant appeals and new trials. Three years is generally accepted as about the average time required at present to finally determine such suits in New York state. Meantime the injured workman or his family is carrying the whole burden of the accident, whereby such a thing as the following, noted by chance in the daily paper, becomes only too possible.

A news item in 1907, slightly condensed, reads thus: "Yesterday the Appellate Division reversed judgment and granted a new trial in the action brought by Margaret Wren to recover \$10,000 for the death of her husband, who died from the effects of burns received by the contents of a ladle filled with molten iron falling

upon his head and body on December 26, 1900. Mrs. Wren has six children, all of whom are depending upon her for support." Further the amount of damages which may be recovered for a given injury is wholly dependent upon the will of juries, resulting largely in guess work, often influenced by sentiment, so that damages awarded for the loss of a leg have been known to vary in nine different suits from \$5,000 to \$35,000 with no two alike. In the third place, the method is enormously expensive and only a fraction of what employers pay out ever reaches the point of need, namely, the injured workmen. Litigation is notoriously costly for all parties. It is common for employers to insure themselves with commercial insurance companies against their liability to pay damages to injured workmen so that in case of accident and suit the insurance company defends the case, and, if it loses, pays the damages. In 1905, the employers in this state paid out in premiums for such insurance \$4,381,634, but the insurance companies paid to injured workmen for damages only \$1,393,931. In other words, two-thirds of what the employers paid out went to the insurance companies to pay the expenses of their business or profits. But still worse, the other one-third did not all reach the injured workman by any means.

According to those well informed in the matter, the average contingent fee received by plaintiffs' attorneys in suits of this kind is between a third and a half of the amount recovered. Verily, whatever of the economic burden of industrial accidents is actually shifted from the shoulders of the injured workman, through his legal right, doubles itself, if not more, by the time it reaches the employer's shoulders.

But finally, in the fourth place, as a matter of fact, the present legal right of workmen can, at the best, shift only ten to fifteen per cent. of the burden of accidents from their shoulders. That is the commonly accepted estimate of the proportion of all accidents in which there is any hope for the workman of proving negligence on the part of the employer. So then, we have arrived at this: Society at present in New York state leaves eighty-five per cent. of the economic burden of industrial accidents on the shoulders of the injured worker or his family, save for a very limited possibility of voluntary sharing of the burden by the employer.

Now why is the burden thus left in the great majority of cases upon the injured workman. Is it because eighty-five out of every 100 victims of accidents have failed to exercise the "due care"

which the law requires of employee as well as employer, as described above? No, for while it is true that many workmen are injured through their own carelessness, wherever statistics on the point have been collected, they prove conclusively that in the great majority of cases accidents are not caused by the victims' carelessness. Thus for nearly 50,000 cases in five years' investigated in Austria, in only twenty-six per cent. could the accident be ascribed to the fault of the victim. German statistics show similar results. For a majority of the cases then the question still remains: How is this leaving of the burden on the injured workman or his family justified? The simple truth is, it is not justified.

The common law of employers' liability holds that the ordinary risks of an occupation, after the employer has discharged his duty of exercising reasonable care, are voluntarily assumed by the workman when he enters the occupation, on the principle that one who wittingly encounters a danger must take the consequence if he is injured; the assumption being that a workman of average intelligence understands the danger and is free to seek other employment if he does not care to incur such danger, the supposition being also that the workman in hazardous occupation receives a higher wage to compensate him for the extra risk. Now, without wasting any time on the legal subtleties of the argument, the vital defect in the whole thing is that it is historically out of date. The doctrine became established in the common law long before present conditions of work existed or were dreamed of. This was in the days before the industrial revolution when hand work in small shops prevailed, with the few dangers inherent in the work plainly obvious and practically in the hands of the workman as to control and under an industrial organization in which the artisan was nearly as independent economically as the master.

Since those days the revolution wrought by steam and machinery has transformed the workshop into the factory where high power, swift machines largely beyond his control surround the workman on every hand and under an industrial organization in which the ability of workmen freely to choose or reject occupations with a view to escape their risks, or to secure higher wages as compensation therefor, are myths. Mechanical occupations have become so generally hazardous that for a great mass of workers it is these or none, while that they are compensated for the hazard by a higher wage is wholly disproven by almost

any wage statistics. In a word, while the workman's legal rights in the matter have remained stationary, the necessary environment of his work has constantly grown more dangerous. The law inherited from hand tool days is simply an absurdity in 1907, when in the factories of New York state for every accident caused by hand tools there were thirteen caused by mechanical power.

What now shall be the remedy? For it is hard to believe that public sentiment, once aware of the true state of the case as outlined above, will tolerate any other question. The answer is, simply fit the law to the fundamental fact of the case that the bulk of industrial accidents is due to the worker's environment and not to his fault in the sense that he is more careless than those in other walks of life. This means treating the injured workman as the victim, not the cause, of the accident, and in place of a penalty, giving him or his family compensation for loss of wages and medical expenses. Who shall pay this compensation? The answer to this is that after all that is possible has been done to prevent accidents and outside of wilful misconduct of workmen, accidents must be regarded as practically a necessary incident of the modern productive processes by means of which society is able to enjoy the present degree of variety and cheapness in its food, clothing and housing. The cost of accidents which injure workmen should be made a part of the cost of production, just as the cost of accidents which do damage to factories by fire now is, to be included in the price of goods paid by society. It is society for whose benefit, in the last analysis, the risks of modern mechanical industry are incurred. Therefore, it is only just to society, as well as to the workman, to thus transfer the burden. The practical method for transferring the cost of accidents to society at large as consumer is simply to require that in every accident not caused by willful misconduct of workers the employer shall pay to the injured workman or his dependents a fixed compensation based on the economic loss to the latter, the employer recouping himself by inclusion of such expense, like any other of the costs of production, in the market price of the product, this requirement of the individual employer being possibly supplemented, in order to make its fulfillment secure against his possible inability to pay, by obligatory insurance of employers against their liability to pay compensation. Such is the alternative to which justice and social expediency point as the way of escape from the present intolerable situation, a way out, which would

not only do justice to the eighty-five per cent. of injured workmen who have no possible chance at present of securing compensation at law, which is the main thing, but which it could easily be shown, did time permit, would do better justice to the other fifteen per cent. who now have some legal chance for recovery.

But passing over such detailed comparison of workmen's compensation with employers' liability, the prime question of practicability for New York state remains to be briefly considered. Fortunately as to the general question of the practicability of compulsory compensation for all accidents under modern industrial conditions, there is no necessity for discussion. The best test of practicability is experience, and this test has been applied, for years in most cases, in nearly every other modern industrial country except the United States. Of such European nations Switzerland alone now stands in the same class with us. Great Britain, whence our common law of liability came direct and whose industrial conditions most nearly resemble ours, abandoned that old law for the compensation system in 1897 for factories, mines, railways and large construction work, after two years extended it to agriculture, and two years ago further extended it to mercantile establishments, shipping and domestic service, and also extended it so as to cover certain trade diseases as well as accidents. What then is there to hinder the adoption by New York state of a workmen's compensation act, which, like the English law, should require employers to pay every employee injured by accident "not attributable to his serious and wilful misconduct," one-half wages during his disability or to his dependents, in case of his death, a sum equal to three years' wages, with a certain fixed maximum in each case, those in the English law being in round numbers \$5 for the weekly allowance and \$1,500 for fatal accidents?

In the light of European experience, there is only one question to be raised here before a negative answer is inescapable, and that is: Could employers in this state bear the expense which would be involved without being unduly handicapped in competition with those in neighboring states not required to pay such compensation? On this point two things are to be considered. In the first place, it is by no means certain that the cost of a compensation system similar to that of Great Britain would be much, if any, greater than the cost of present legal liability plus such voluntary compensation as now exists. On the contrary, it would probably not. This belief, that a compensation system would be

little or no more expensive to employers in the long run than the present liability or voluntary assistance system, is based principally on the great saving which would be made in the costs of litigation, and could be made in the cost of insurance.

A component part of compulsory compensation systems, the success of which has been proven by experience, is the settlement by arbitration of all disputed points between employer and employee with almost no expense to either. In the matter of cost of insurance there is practically no comparison between the commercial companies in this country which sell liability insurance and the employers' associations which have been established in Europe to provide insurance under compensation acts. Such associations in Germany, for example, in 1904 required only 13.5 per cent. of their income for administrative expense, paying the remainder to injured workmen, while in this state in 1905, of the premiums paid by employers for liability insurance, over 68 per cent. went to the insurance companies for their expenses or profits. With the same economy of administration as in Germany there would have been five times as much to go to injured workmen.

Absolute proof that the possible economies in the present system would offset any additional expense which might be entailed by such a compensation scheme as that of Great Britain is out of the question, owing to the inadequacy of the existing statistics. The best statistical test of the question thus far made is one recently undertaken by the Wisconsin Bureau of Labor and Industrial Statistics, the results of which appear in Part I of the *Thirteenth Biennial Report* of that bureau published as this paper was in preparation.

An estimate therein, based on the experience of over 800 employers, and worked out carefully in every detail, leads to the conclusion that, "Assuming an economical administration of funds, the manufacturing establishments reported in the federal census of 1905 (for Wisconsin) could pay to every person incapacitated by an injury in the course of his employment in these establishments, regardless of negligence, the following scale of payments at a cost not greatly in advance of what the existing employers' liability premiums would amount to for these establishments at existing rates: In fatal cases, three times the annual wages; in non fatal cases, one-half wages during total disablement after the second week for one year, and an additional payment of \$500 or less to those partly disabled for life, according to the degree of such

permanent disablement, and in addition first medical aid in all cases." This scale of compensation approximates very closely to that which was established by the English Compensation Act of 1897. Notice, too, that his estimate of what could be done, reckons on present cost of liability insurance alone, without considering what some employers now voluntarily pay in addition in the way of wages during disability, medical expenses or lump sums. But in the second place, even granting that compulsory compensation might impose a slight additional expense on employers in this state, it must be borne in mind that the problem in that case would only be the same that has always had to be faced in this country with reference to industrial reforms.

Regulation of industry being left to the individual states, while competition is no respecter of state lines, every first step forward has had to be taken by some one state courageous enough to regard human life as of importance to society before dollars and cents. Child labor has always existed because it was cheap, and the first states to restrict it undoubtedly laid an expense upon their employers of which those in other states were free. But does any one now dare to argue that those states made a mistake. On the contrary they stand rather in honor as having been pioneers of progress, and what is equally significant, they have drawn other states after them, and it is only fair in a problem of this kind to give due regard to this tendency of reform to spread from one state to another. Germany adopted compulsory compensation for accidents eleven years before any other country except Austria, and three years before Austria, and she not only was not ruined by the competition of her European neighbors but, largely as the result of her example, has seen the system established generally throughout Europe.

The call to a similar role in this country comes now directly to the individual states, for the federal government has gone about as far as it can certainly go at present, in view of the recent decision on the railway employers' liability act of 1906, by passing this year a compensation act for government employees. To what state can the call be more urgent than to the foremost manufacturing state in the Union, which is New York State?

CHAIRMAN SHERMAN: The discussion of the subject just treated in Mr. Hatch's paper will be opened by H. A. Jaggard, superintendent of the Northern Railroad Company, Elmira, New York.

H. A. JAGGARD: Ladies and gentlemen: I do not want you to think that I am a monster of iniquity, but I have been studying Mr. Hatch's paper for a week back, and I cannot entirely agree with him. This is not satisfactory to me, because he is evidently a thorough student of the matter, and it is agreeable in general to be on the same side and to take the same view as other good people. I do not know why we do not agree. He succeeded in getting a lot of good statistics here. It must be that the statistics are the trouble. You will remember that Carlyle said that only the inspired can use statistics. But what do you suppose Carlyle would say about statistics ten years old? Mr. Hatch in showing the number of persons who were injured and who received voluntary aid from employers used statistics of the year 1899, and I feel he should have left them out, because in a country like ours, where conditions change radically in ten years, statistics of this kind are really not worth very much. The railroad tonnage has doubled in ten years; pig iron production and coal production have all doubled in ten years; but even taking the year 1899 and the statistics he shows, what I am endeavoring to show is that the manufacturer has done really very well considering the circumstances, on the voluntary side of this matter. The year 1899 was one of depression. Manufactures were at a very low point; all the industries of the country were running at the lowest scale of expenditure. It was not a year when manufacturers would voluntarily lay out money for philanthropic purposes, and yet his figures for that year show that in fourteen per cent. of the non fatal injuries, manufacturers paid wages, and moreover, they participated to some extent in thirty per cent. Now, whether fourteen per cent. was their duty or not is a significant point. If it is conceded, and I think it is reasonable to concede it, that a careless workman who brings disaster on himself for one reason or another is not at all in the position of the deserving workman who is in the place where he cannot control conditions and is a real victim. That is a very essential point.

Now, Mr. Hatch finds that eighty-five per cent. of the people injured are victims. If he is right, he comes very near to having proved what he starts to prove, as I see it. But is he right? He says that his figure is an estimate, and his paper does not show — I think his paper states that "closer to that cannot be arrived at or reached in this country;" and then he quotes German and Austrian figures to show that twenty-six per cent. of the acci-

dents were due to negligence, the rest being due to the manufacturer. Now, Fagan, the American authority on this matter, who has loomed up in the last six months, is the author of a series of articles in the *Atlantic Monthly*, Confessions of a Railway Signal Man. He says that after comparison of accurate figures, he finds that eighty-five per cent. of the fatalities on railroads are due to the carelessness of railroad employees. Now if eighty-five per cent. of the accidents on railroads are due to negligence of employees, why should a different law apply in the factory or to any other place? Surely a railroad man would have no object in jeopardizing his life or in being careless. A trainman knows that any carelessness he exhibits is likely to result badly for himself and his fellows as well as the public. He knows he will be disciplined and he stands a chance of losing his position. He is continually being pressed by every kind of moral pressure to be up-to-date and to observe rules. Now if to the extent of eighty-five per cent. he is careless, is it probable that he represents a different situation from the man working in the factory?

Now, if we assume that the same law applies, this eighty-five per cent. to the factory accidents are due to negligence. If due to negligence, that is, of the employees, then the manufacturer is responsible for fifteen per cent.; and by Mr. Hatch's ten-year-old statistics, the manufacturer in that year, 1899, had provided full wages in fourteen per cent. of the cases.

Now, take another indication of what the manufacturer does. The railroads, in private relief associations meet the situation in a way which I think will suit Mr. Hatch. A man pays a moderate contribution according to his salary. This provides him with a fair allowance in case of sickness or disability, and a fair cash sum in case of death. He has an opportunity to provide for himself and his family in this way which is not provided in a similarly advantageous way by any of the regular insurance companies. The railroads provide, in addition, the most advanced ones, a pension fund. They provide savings funds and Y. M. C. A. rooms, and terminals and rest houses for trainmen at the end of their runs, and in every way that is at all practicable they show an interest in the welfare of the men. That is one instance. The Baltimore and Ohio railroad, in its relief department, has disbursed about \$13,000,000 up to the year 1906 and 1907. The Pennsylvania railroad has probably disbursed more. This fund

so disbursed is partly paid by the men in the form of contributions, but on the other hand, the railroads stand together to make up deficiencies. Moreover, there is a use of the funds when there are surpluses which take the form of the superannuation fund. So that the man leading ordinary railroad life pays about thirty or forty cents a month for his relief, and the benefit he gets is in exchange. The United States Steel Corporation has a profit sharing concern by which they sell stock to their employees at a rate which allows a good profit to the employee if he wants to sell it. It is true at times the price of the share cannot be gotten on account of the market conditions, but the Steel Corporation can be trusted to see the matter through. The Baldwin Locomotive Works in Philadelphia has, I think, a fund for relief purposes. I tried to find out whether Cramp's Shipyard had a fund. I think they have, but I could not get positive information. But signs all over the country point to the view that if Mr. Hatch would get statistics of this state, he would find a different situation.

In 1899 the country had not received the moral impulse due to Roosevelt, Taft and Hughes. The moral uplift from that is enormous, and it is only now showing its effect. With such dynamic forces in the country it is entirely probable that the illiberal manufacturer will be eliminated. The illiberal manufacturer is an anachronism which Mr. Hatch has discovered. His view of the common law will hardly stand analysis, but his view of the illiberal manufacturer is of value to us. The man of this day to be successful in this role must be courageous, up-to-date, liberal and striking out every minute for something new. The old type of man is going. You will remember that the Pullman Company strike in 1893 — I forget just when it was — but it was due to the semi-commercial, semi-philanthropic attempt of the Pullman Company to put their employees in a model village with everything sanitary, and then they attach features which turned an honest penny for the Pullman Company. Well, the combination of piety and philanthropy and commerce did not mix. It terminated in a strike. Well, that day is over. That is the tendency that makes people think that the manufacturers will not, if left to themselves, take care of this matter.

Another phase of this matter is the pathetic picture which a man in a specialized department of work presents. It is a heart-rending thing to see a man working day after day on the same piece of work, but it may interest you to know that Münsterberg,

the German critic of American men and methods and manners, takes a different view of it. He says that the American develops himself, and he sees ramifications and variety in the one thing he is making. It develops skill in that particular thing and leads to invention and enterprise, and does not dwarf him. This is hardly granted on all sides, but it is interesting.

The extreme measure Mr. Hatch advocates is not supported by statistics, and I think it is antagonistic to the spirit of American institutions. If we really feel for the injured man, would it not be more to the point instead of indorsing a measure of this kind which puts the entire risk on the manufacturer, as there is an adjustment, which would have to be passed, and in that period no one could tell who would go to the wall — would it not be better to raise a guaranty fund to provide for manufacturers during this adjustment period? There is no article in Mr. Hatch's paper which provides for that.

One other aspect of the matter is that we are in the socialistic swing. The tendencies in England and Germany are paternalistic. They have not our ideals. We, as a people standing for initiative, should not endorse a law so paternal and so solicitous in its tendency until further time has been allowed to see what voluntary effort will do, and until the laws of 1902 and 1906 in the state of New York and the present federal law have had a chance to show their effect.

CHAIRMAN SHERMAN: The subject just-discussed is now open for general discussion from the floor of the house. I would like any one with anything to say on this subject to join in the discussion.

FATHER McMANN: The speakers who have just addressed us remind me of the minister who was going through a thriving city like Elmira up to one of the mining towns. The minister performed his part well in opening the service there, but he saw that the miners were looking at his organist, and he said, "Do not shoot the organist; he is doing the best he can," so I say here, do not shoot the speaker; he is doing the best he can. He is trying to do what is right. He speaks of eighty-five per cent. being careless, quoting some one who wrote on the subject of railroad accidents. It strikes me — when the trade school idea was to be added on to the public school system in the past few years — it strikes me that those who found the greatest fault

with that idea were the labor unions because they said the trade schools now in existence are simply exponents for the trusts or breeding those who will go contrary to the labor union. And it was particularly in the railroad trade schools that this was said. The trade schools in the railroad department were averse to the labor unions, and they found eighty-five per cent. of the accidents were due to the carelessness of those employees. But I am glad, Mr. Chairman, to have a chance to say a word on this subject, particularly as I find in your report that we had before us two subjects, one, the social betterment, as brought forth in the employers' liability act, building up those who are down, and giving them a chance to earn a livelihood for themselves and those dependent upon them; and the second is, social betterment in the trade.

We know that the great progress our country has made is due to the wonderful resources in this land of ours, and we know also that the skilled workingmen able to guide efforts at our hands are brought from the other side over here. We have few skilled employees able to guide the forces that bring about this progress save those we get from the other side of the water. That is the reason for the trade school, whether the technical school or trade, whatever phase it takes, it is for the social welfare and the development of the country. I am glad the subject was brought up because from the lesson taught to us this morning, it strikes me that the subject of relief for the poor is now dividing into two-fold phases, first, the economical phase, striving to right the wrongs, and take away the evil and the misery brought about by those whose selfishness drives them on. That is the economical side. The other side is where we go to the relief of those men, stricken not through the selfishness of others, but rather in the nature of Providence bringing them to a state of destitution and poverty. Whether it is from sickness that comes, not from the trade they work at, or from the hand of God, but whether it is from the want of physical brain power which the Lord has not given them, that is a subject we have before us.

One great principle is that of looking at the employers' liability. If there are 20,000 injured at this day, we know that twenty-five per cent. of the dependent people in general comes through sickness; that sixty-five per cent. comes through sickness and want of work and proper wages. Now of all of those sixty per cent. of people dependent through the selfishness or want of

economical right to being properly placed, that is a part of the social problem, that sixty per cent.; and a great part of that sickness and want of work and true or proper wages for the support of the family comes largely from the employers' liability bill.

It is a subject which Mr. Hatch has brought up in a classical form. Since that time it has been mooted occasionally. Since then it has been brought forward, but we have to point it out every place we go until we get what is right. We do not wish to despoil the employer of what is his, but we wish to get to a proper basis. Why should the poor employee suffer alone? He is a physical part of the machine, whether of binding of books or cutting of wood, he is a part of the machine, and if the machine breaks down or gets out of order, the employer has some attention given to it to see that it gets back to proper place. But the poor employee with the family dependent on him, we know that when it is negligence on the part of the employer, that the employer has to pay, but how hard it is for the employee to prove the negligence of the employer. It takes three years, as said by one of the witnesses, to get through with a case, but the poor employee, we are told, should get insured. The poor employee cannot be insured, or if insured, the insurance company will try itself to the utmost to keep from paying his claim.

Therefore, Mr. Chairman, it strikes me it would be well for us at this time to give this some attention, but not because socialism is in the air. There is much that is true in socialism, but it paints things, perhaps, too luridly. There is no error even that can last any time, unless there is some phase of truth in it; and in presenting their side, they may be strong, and too picturesque, but we have only to fear what is false and wrong, and if we can by our voice and by the sentiment of this Conference bring about a true state of affairs, we will do something for the future.

MR. FRANKE: The gentleman said in his paper that every civilized country in Europe, with the exception of Switzerland, had adopted some form of workingmen's pension act. I want to say that on the twenty-eighth of September, 1908, the Swiss Parliament met and took up for discussion the merchants' compensation act; and advices received by me as late as Monday show that sixty passages of the act had been passed by the Swiss Legis-

lature. This free country, with a people and inspiration like our own, and which was the first country in Europe to adopt an employers' liability law, back as early as 1878, this country has fallen into line with Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Germany, Austria, Luxemburg, France, Italy and England, and the only country in the civilized world that does not recognize this equity in the employees, that has not learned to charge it back to the industry, and not to the workingman, is the United States.

CHAIRMAN SHERMAN: Is there anything further?

COMMISSIONER WILLIAMS: (State Commissioner of Labor, Albany): I do not think that one or two remarks made by Mr. Jaggard should go unchallenged. Mr. Jaggard made the statement that eighty-five per cent. of the accidents occurring in the factories of this state were presumably due to the negligence of those who were injured. I cannot agree with that statement, and I think I may add that I am in a position to flatly contradict it, for the statistics of accidents come to our department, and they are carefully scrutinized, and we find a very large percentage of these accidents are due to the fact that the manufacturers have failed to observe the provisions of our factory laws which provide that machinery shall be properly protected. Mr. Jaggard might perhaps counter on me in view of that statement by saying, "Well, why don't you enforce the law?" We do. When we examine the accident report and have reason to believe or find from the admissions made to us that they are due to the failure of the manufacturer to provide necessary safeguards, orders are issued to have the safeguards installed; and then the matter is followed up and the law is enforced. I do not wish to take up but one more moment of the time of the Conference. I cannot believe with Mr. Jaggard that it would be well to defer action on this important question until the manufacturers have voluntarily taken up a fair share of the burden. It seems to me that the only index we can follow in respect to the attitude of the manufacturers upon this question is their attitude in regard to the legislation had upon the subject in this state.

Mr. Jaggard knows, without doubt, that when legislation was sought upon this question, that the manufacturers sent their local representatives to Albany to fight every proposition advanced by those interested in this subject, fighting against the extension of the liability of employees; and what is true of the manufacturers

was also true of the railroad corporations. So I do not think we can afford to wait for a manifestation of the spirit of liberality to which Mr. Jaggard refers. I am sure if we wait for the manifestation of that spirit, that society will utterly fail in the performance of this important duty and that the burdens incident to the accidents that occur will continue to rest heavily, as now, upon those who can ill afford to bear them.

THE CHAIRMAN: Is there any further discussion? If not, we will now proceed to the next subject on the program for this evening, which is, Hours of Labor in Relation to Industrial Efficiency. This subject will be treated by Miss Pauline Goldmark, executive secretary of the Consumers League of New York City.

MISS PAULINE GOLDMARK: This brief discussion of a very large subject will be limited to the question of the efficiency of the working woman. It cannot treat of the subject of man's efficiency. At present the question of women's nerves is of the greatest interest. They have invaded the industrial field to the extent of 300,000 in the state of New York. The hours of child labor have been restricted more and more. Men have been protected by unions. Women are practically unprotected and their hours unlimited. The following paper is limited to a discussion of the industrial efficiency of working women alone, and does not touch upon the kindred subject of men's efficiency.

Working under the stern compulsion of the competitive system, the manufacturer is increasingly driven to enlarge his output while reducing expenditures. On the one hand he devotes himself to the closest calculation of cost, and cutting down of all expenditure that can possibly be avoided. An anecdote about a large shoe manufacturer illustrates how closely expenses are calculated in that trade. This man is said to have incurred a heavy loss by omitting the item of one single nail in his estimate for a season's work. A no less important consideration of the manufacturer is the use of all possible labor-saving devices. In speed and complexity, machinery has been revolutionized to meet the demands of modern industry. Ingenuity is taxed to the utmost; thousands of dollars worth of machinery are relentlessly consigned to the scrap heap to be succeeded by new and costly inventions which are still more time saving.

From the workers' point of view the industrial development of

the present day is chiefly characterized by greater demands upon health and strength. The pressure of work results chiefly in increased speed, the labor of operatives is not made easier by the use of machinery, as the physical strain is proportionally increased by "speeding up" and by the greater complexity of operation. This change is carried to its greatest extreme in the United States; it is also taking place abroad, where it is called the "Americanization" of industry.

The transformation which has taken place in a lifetime is probably best illustrated by the development of the sewing machine in our own country. The poor sewing woman, who was pitied for her day's work bending over a one needle foot machine, has been supplanted by the operator at the multiple-needle machine. These wonderful creations carry from four to twelve needles and set stitches up to a maximum of 3,600 a minute. Buttonholes are made at the phenomenal rate of 24,000 a day. A visit to a loft in which even a score of these remarkable machines for making stitches muslin underwear are in operation reveals the arduous requirements of daily employment as an operator. The speed is so great that each needle appears only as a flash of light at each stitch. While guiding her material, the operator must detect the breaking of any of the four to twelve threads which feed the needles. This necessitates constant vigilance and an increasing strain of attention amid the deafening roar of machinery. The eye strain is so severe that the operators' eyesight is often seriously affected after a few years in the trade. In other industries where machinery does not set the pace of the workers, pay by piece work is used as an incentive to force to its maximum the energy of the individual. Sometimes premiums are paid to stimulate output still further.

The nervous wear and tear of employment at such tension upon women and young girls is hard to calculate. We are only beginning to turn our attention to the question and to realize that there is a problem before us more far reaching in its effect on health and efficiency than has yet been realized. The special problems of fatigue and disease which result from overwork and exhaustion has thus far received little attention. As a nation we are as lavish of the health of wage earners as we are wasteful of our other natural resources. Apparently, the point has just been reached when the conservation of such national possessions as forests, water power and mineral wealth is claiming public attention. Has not the moment come when we shall begin to consider

the damage to our working population caused by overwork? When we shall begin to observe its most subtle injuries in exhausted vitality and premature old age? The waste in this case is social waste. It affects our national welfare even more immediately than the ruthless devastation of natural resources. The health of the worker is her capital. It is also the capital of the nation. It is legitimately the concern of the state to safeguard the health of its citizens.

Physicians are beginning to express their opinions on the dangers to women wage earners. Dr. Thomas Oliver, the greatest English expert, writes that "while the machinery pursues its relentless course and is insensitive to fatigue, human beings are conscious, especially toward the end of the day, that the competition is unequal, for their muscles are becoming tired and their brains jaded.

"Present day factory labor is too much a competition of sensitive human nerve and muscle against insensitive iron. * * * That there is greater strain upon the nervous system, more exhaustion and consequently need for greater leisure, few will deny and that in many instances the hard work induces premature old age goes without saying. * * * There are occupations, especially the textile trades, which tend through sheer strain to wear out the body of the worker and induce premature old age." "Women may suffer in health," says another authority, "in various ways that do not affect materially her mortality — neurasthenia, the bane of overworked and underfed women, does not leave a definite trace on the mortality tables. * * * I have been struck, * * * with the numerous facts that have come to my notice tending to convince me that one of the most common effects of overwork and poor hygiene in industrial life is an ill-defined condition of neurasthenia, insomnia, headache," etc.

The speeding and tension of modern industry are not likely to grow less. On the contrary they will probably be more extreme in the future. This progress can and should no more be retarded than any other modern invention. Obviously relief for the workers can only be effected by a substantial reduction of the working day. The human frame must be protected from the cumulative fatigue produced by the excessive hours of toil.

The recent decision of the United States Supreme Court in the Oregon case on the hours of women's work has once and for all authoritatively established the right of a state to limit the hours of work for adult women. It declares constitutional a ten-hour

working day on the ground that women's "physical structure and proper discharge of her maternal functions, having in view not merely her own health but the well being of the race,—justify legislation to protect her from the greed of man."

Restriction of working hours has been the point of cardinal interest in the development of factory legislation during the past century. In England decade after decade has seen the gradual reduction of hours for women and children. After exhaustive inquiries into actual conditions of work, step after step has been taken based on definite experience. We have scarcely reached the point where it is of practical importance to discuss the more specific questions of the adjustment of length of hours to the industrial efficiency of women. We have not yet reached the first requirement of humanity.

It is of course unnecessary to take up the cudgels in defense of factory legislation before this audience. But under present conditions the protection of women in the state of New York is still so incomplete as to leave many evils unremedied at the present day. For instance, the mercantile law, which applies to stores, is still so imperfect that women over twenty-one years have no limit whatsoever as to the hours they may be compelled to work. Their hours are absolutely unlimited at all times of the year. There is further no supper hour required by the mercantile law, so that it is not uncommon to find, as we did last month in the audit department of a large retail store, that girls are employed without interruption from one until nine P. M.,—a stretch of eight unbroken hours after the morning's toil. It may be added that the girls do not receive extra pay for overtime even when it is continued till ten or eleven P. M. in the fortnight before Christmas and when the total number of hours for the week rises to seventy or seventy-three. The weekly pay is \$5. During the fortnight before Christmas our present mercantile law gives special facilities to merchants for overtime work without limitation. Employment in the large stores at this time of special rush and hardship undermines the health of young workers, who are sometimes employed for eighty hours a week. Any girl over sixteen years of age may legally be so employed.

Under the New York Factory Law, which fortunately allows no such vicious exception, it is permitted to employ a girl beginning upon her sixteenth birthday for twelve hours a day provided that the total number of hours does not exceed sixty a week. Such extraordinary latitude allowed to employer is entirely con-

trary to the European tendency to shorten hours for all women without respect to age. Factory legislation has not kept pace with the remarkable industrial development of our country. More and more strenuous effort is demanded of women without corresponding decrease in the hours of toil. Worse yet in the last few years manufacturers have actually appeared before committees of the New York State Legislature urging an extension of women's hours of labor. Candy manufacturers, canners and laundrymen have repeatedly come on this errand. It may seem almost incredible that the inhuman demand has been made for the extension of the present legal sixty-hour week to seventy-two or seventy-five hours.

Every attempted improvement in the labor law is regarded by those employers who appear at Albany as an encroachment upon their private business. The friends of working women, when appearing before the Legislature, are each year confronted by self-interested and powerful merchants and manufacturers whose plausible and ingenious arguments too often deceive the legislators. I remember that the merchant quoted above (whom we now discover employing girls under eighteen for such extraordinary long hours before Christmas) on one occasion presented a glowing argument on the advantages of employment in his establishment. He said that all his employees were like one family, that there was no such thing as overwork under his hospitable roof. The opposition of these employers to humane legislation in the interest of women have been so violent during the past few years, such efforts have been made to conceal from the public the real conditions and hardships of work, that one is irresistibly forced to the conclusion that these men are quite willing to sacrifice their employees to the exigencies of the trade.

Just as an antiquated machine is consigned to the scrap heap, the worn-out working girl is dispensed with when her usefulness is over. The shortness of trade life for machine operators, cigarmakers, textile workers and the like testifies to our present practice. In America, apparently, it has seemed cheaper to the manufacturers to follow this method. In Germany, where the employers share the responsibility, where they contribute their share to industrial insurance, the most extraordinary precautions are taken to prevent illness and premature old age because the expense falls partly on the employer. Elaborate investigations are being undertaken to show the need of lessening the dangers of occupation and of reducing working hours as the most important

safeguard for the efficiency of the workers. Humanly speaking, a worker's efficiency is necessarily measured by his ability to keep up with the changes in modern industry, and by his intelligence in adapting himself to the new requirements of his trade.

The enlightened employer knows that in the long run his most efficient workers are those who are in the full enjoyment of their physical vigor. Health alone can give the worker the resourcefulness and ingenuity which have been the characteristics of American industry. Long hours, overstrain and lack of legitimate leisure lead to demoralization and, in the case of women especially, to an evitable lessening of efficiency. Does it not stand to reason that any woman who works for fifteen to eighteen hours a day must be expending more of her vital strength than any employer has the right to receive? He may dispense with her when she is no longer serviceable to him, but ultimately society is made poorer by the loss of a useful member, not to speak of her possible cost to the state in sickness or dependence.

The length of the working day physiologically adjusted to the strength of the workers is still an open question. But in the light of present knowledge there can be no discussion of the reasonableness of demanding that women be protected from their present excessive toil. Far from conceding to any demands for longer hours, there should be immediate action to restrict the working time in all forms of employment, whether in stores or in factories.

As a first step in this direction, New York could surely follow Oregon in establishing a flat ten-hour day instead of legalizing overtime to an inhuman twelve-hour day as is now the case in New York State. The Massachusetts fifty-eight-hour week with its absolute prohibition of night work for adult women in manufacture places that state also far in advance of us in intelligent care of the health and efficiency of its working women.

SECRETARY O. F. LEWIS: The committee on organization makes the following report regarding the principal officers of the Conference:

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MORNAY WILLIAMS..... New York

FIRST VICE-PRESIDENT.

MRS. J. SLOAT FASSETT..... Elmira

SECOND VICE-PRESIDENT.

C. L. SULZBERGER..... New York

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HON. JAMES WOOD Mt. Kisco

MRS. R. C. PRUTN Albany

The next meeting of the Conference will be held in Albany, November 18-20, 1909.

THE CHAIRMAN: Discussion of Miss Goldmark's paper was to have been opened by Mr. Haserot, but he has been inevitably called away on business and is, therefore, unable to participate in the discussion himself, but he has sent a paper which he prepared after reading Miss Goldmark's paper, in which he presents some arguments in favor of a less fixed and less arbitrary regulation of the hours of labor of women than the one advocated by Miss Goldmark.

I will read Mr. Haserot's paper.

It would manifestly be impossible for any thinking person to introduce a sound argument which might refute the sense and wisdom outlined in the very comprehensive paper presented by

Miss Goldmark. It will be admitted, however, that in the last decade the hours of labor have been shortened very materially, and that this bettered condition, especially as it related to women workers, has been due but in part to the enactment of radical compulsory laws. Discussion and publicity will lead to a clear understanding of the subject, and, therefore, the presentation of facts such as given in the paper before us must tend toward a convergence of ideas of the business side of the subject, and the humane and sociological side, rather than a divergence.

Legislation based upon theory alone never could have placed this country in the commanding position that it occupies in the mercantile and manufacturing world. And, notwithstanding the apparent lack of sympathy among employers, the condition of the woman worker is far better to-day in this country than in any country on earth. Teaching and preaching the humane side of the argument should produce a greater and more far reaching effect than to foster antagonism, created by laws which recognize no distinction as to character of employment. Speaking from the standpoint of a manufacturer who finds it both necessary and advisable to employ women in his business operations, I acknowledge that it does stand to reason that any woman who works fifteen to eighteen hours per day expends more of her vital force than any employer has a right to ask, provided she works just as intently the last hour as she does the first. But that is not possible. It must be apparent to the most pronounced advocate of shorter hours that an employer would get better service with an eight-hour day than with a fifteen-hour day. Why then should he not be a much stronger advocate than the person who suggests, but does not employ?

Nothing but a vision most dense could make him see it in any other light. He does see it. He knows it. But while seeing and knowing he is confronted with the condition which cannot be governed by rule. I belong to one of the classes of manufacturers mentioned who have asked for an increase in hours rather than a decrease, and I do so not because I wish to grind soul and body out of my women workers. On the contrary, I want them fresh and strong and efficient. It is better for me that they should be so — but as a preserver of nature's bounty which must be taken care of at flood tide, I cannot control the element to such an extent that I can confine my work to a limit of twelve hours any and every day, however much I prefer to do so. When I make such an attempt, some portion of my product is sure to go to waste or

be improperly prepared owing to haste. My environment creates a necessity which may not, and as a matter of fact does not, exist in any class of business.

No person of sound judgment would attempt to advance arguments against a condition which would not create efficiency. The fact remains, however, that my work must be performed at and during a time when the bounty of nature comes to me in its fullness, and then I must act. It is quite wrong in thought to believe that every manufacturer is of a grasping character without a soul, and I do not see that I am blocking the way to enlightened advancement when I advance the argument that every condition of working life shall not be cut to an exact and identical type. I have known it frequently to occur that a five hour day was necessarily followed by a fifteen hour day, in the height of the preserving season, and no human hand could change the situation. Legislation cannot provide a system which will govern by a hard and fast rule the exigencies of a day of sunshine and a day of rain. Rather should legislation provide a system which has some element of latitude as conditions require, while still consistently controlling the abuse of the power that is given to the employer over the worker, a power more often than not, exercised for the good of the worker.

For the sake of broadening the whole question into the field of the good to the many, we will eliminate the individual worker who says "Why should I not work as long as I choose?" But while doing so we should be willing to recognize that all conditions in the field of labor are not the same and that a fair recognition of the fact in the enactment of laws would much more largely tend toward a correction of evils that exist, and should be remedied, than a fixed rule that permits no consideration of the redeeming features of conservative latitude.

THE CHAIRMAN: The subject is now open for discussion from the floor. Is there any discussion?

PRESIDENT ROSENDALE: It has been announced that the Conference will adjourn unless there is some business to present; as there seems to be none, the Conference will stand adjourned until 10:00 o'clock for business, and at 10:30 the Conference will start with the business of the session.

The Conference stands adjourned.

THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 19, 1908.

PROGRAM.

- 10:00 A. M. Business.
- 10:30 A. M. Report of the Committee on the Care of Children. Chairman, Charles D. Hilles, superintendent New York Juvenile Asylum, Dobbs Ferry, N. Y.
- 10:50 A. M. The Effect of Social and Civic Activities in Child-Caring Institutions Upon the Character and Individuality of Children, by Dr. Ludwig R. Bernstein, superintendent of the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society, New York city.
- 11:10 A. M. Discussion. Opened by Charles H. Johnson, superintendent Albany Orphan Asylum, Albany, N. Y.
- 11:20 A. M. General discussion.
- 11:40 A. M. The Duty of the State to Support Destitute and Neglected Children, by Judge Benjamin J. Shove, Syracuse, N. Y.
- 12:00 A. M. Discussion. Opened by Prof. Frank A. Fetter, of Cornell University.
- 12:10 A. M. General discussion.

PRESIDENT ROSENDALE: The Conference will please be in order.

The first order of business according to our program is "Business." Are there any measures to be proposed, actions suggested, or resolutions to be offered? Or, is it like the snakes in Ireland — there is no business? If there is nothing under this head, we will proceed according to the program to take up the report of the Committee on the Care of Children, the Chairman of which is Charles D. Hilles, the superintendent of the New York Juvenile Asylum at Dobbs Ferry, N. Y. He will act as chairman of the meeting. I have great pleasure in presenting Mr. Hilles.

CHARLES D. HILLES: Ladies and gentlemen of the Conference: The report of a large committee representing all the complex social agencies for the care and reclamation of dependent, neglected and delinquent children is at best a composite statement and is usually silent on all important subjects about which there is not unanimity of opinion. Such a statement, if it be more than a perfunctory report, should avoid not only controversial subjects, but generalities as well. Your committee therefore presents briefly a limited number of specific suggestions, some of which will serve as texts for the speakers who will occupy the time of this section of the Conference.

FIRST: Should we not give heed to the protests of parents whose children are in institutions, against what seems to them to be an abuse of inquisitorial power conferred by the state? When a child is committed to an institution by the court, particularly in New York City, it is the practice of the children's society to send a visitor to the home of the child in search of data for its history of the case. Within a few days another visit to the home, for a like purpose, is made by a representative of the institution of which the child is an inmate. Then follow agents of reputable societies that are engaged in preparing sociological schedules and exhibits. The visits are unannounced and unexpected.

The ordeal consists of an inspection of every room in the house, an inquiry into ventilation and sanitation, and a quiz covering the occupation, character, age, earning capacity, personal habits, church affiliation, nativity, physical disabilities and other pertinent facts as to each member of the household. Ancestral skeletons are brought forth for the purpose of completing the record as to possible inherited tendencies toward illness or criminality. A few months ago persons who had been saddened by the removal of their children to institutions, made bitter complaint because, within a period of four weeks, they had been subjected to four such visitations, one each from agents of the children's society, the institution of which the children were inmates, the census bureau and a municipal research society.

The wisdom of making one such inquiry was conceded, but the other visits were resented as unnecessary, as unjust and as unduly exposing the complainants to the adverse comment of their neighbors. It must be admitted that such duplication of effort is not only a source of humiliation and irritation to people who have a proper degree of self-respect, but is wasteful in the extreme. The evil is two-fold: It is an expenditure of four dollars for a service worth to society only one dollar; and gives serious offense to persons, frequently of good breeding, who feel they are brought under a system of surveillance and inquisition. The difficulty has been that each agency has regarded its records as confidential; but if the effort to protect the persons most deeply concerned has resulted in a system that is an extravagance and an injustice, and that defeats the humane purposes of the societies by giving rise to indignation instead of gratitude—it would seem that there should be a readjustment based on comity and free interchange of data among charitable societies.

Second: The recent compulsory education and child labor

legislation is thought to involve, as a corollary, public support of children who cannot conform to the new regulations without injury to themselves or their families. It is admitted that through the enforcement of these laws, families having only a meagre income are often seriously crippled in earning capacity; yet the rigid enforcement of these laws is necessary to the well-being of the children.

In many cases the families have been enabled to bear the additional burden through the co-operation of voluntary charity. In other cases, judges report that it has been difficult to enforce the laws, and thus do justice to the child, when the inevitable result would be the dissolution of a family for lack of means to maintain it properly. This result of these laws justifies the committee in heeding those who advocate public aid to destitute children or destitute families upon whom the recent legislation has seemingly wrought a hardship.

The protection of society against the spread of moral disease is now regarded as a legitimate function of government, and the expense of such protection as a legitimate public burden. In an ethical sense, the state rests under an obligation to see that contagious disease is not introduced into the schools and the state may enforce provisions for vaccination. Schoolhouses must be suitably ventilated, desks of a design that will not injure the bodies of the children must be provided, and physical tests, at frequent intervals, must be made of sight and nasal and dental conditions. Children who are almost blind or deaf to schoolroom demonstrations or lectures, or who are in such physical distress as to preclude concentration, cannot prosecute classroom work with advantage or profit. Duty toward the child in the matter of a general physical examination being almost universally recognized, it is argued that the protection of society against the consequences of illiteracy and of sapping of youthful vitality, is likewise a proper function of government, and that the government must therefore assume the expense of such protection.

On the other hand, granting that it is a hardship to forfeit the earnings of the child, does it follow that the child, or his indigent parents, have a right to claim public aid? In this report, your committee refrains from an attempt to answer this inquiry, contents itself with a statement of the question, offers an opportunity for its discussion, and points out that a grant of public aid, under the circumstances just recited, involves a fundamental principle with respect to the relief of the poor.

Assuming that the principle of public aid to indigent school children were accepted, many practical problems would press for solution, as for example: would the rate of relief be fixed by law? If not, to whose discretion would it be left? Would the obligation cease in case of vice, intemperance or other serious misconduct on the part of parents? What guarantee could be given the state against imposture and idleness on the part of parents? Who would detect deceit? Would provisions be made for families, the heads of which are temporarily in distress through industrial displacement?

Third: The introduction of new child-helping and child-rescue activities and agencies in the very recent past has resulted in a substantial gain to society. The segregate schools for orphan, neglected and delinquent children as successor to the congregate type of institution, the recognition of the principle of the indeterminate sentence, thorough medical and dental inspection and treatment of children in institutions and public schools, and the spread of the volunteer movement for the after-care of institution children and paroled children, have materially increased the efficiency of our work for children.

Certain phases of probation may be said to be in the experimental stage, as not even its advocates and specialists speak with dogmatic certainty as to the issue. It is suggested that while probation is successful undoubtedly in its proper field, the precise relation of that field remains to be worked out by experience. Its practical success will rest entirely upon the efficiency of its several organizations. The results of the first year's work of a paid probation officer in the city of Yonkers, published by the State Probation Commission, are encouraging and the report is illuminating. Comparing that year with the year preceding it, the number of children committed to institutions was reduced thirteen per cent. Only habitual young offenders were removed to institutions. A table published on page twelve of the study, reports the number of children in court in 1903-4 as 116, and the number found guilty 113; whereas in 1906-7 (the first year of the paid probation service) the number of children in court on warrant was 127 and the number on summons 330; total, 457. Of the total, 414 were found guilty.

While this table is used for purposes of comparison, it is explained that the comparison is not strictly legitimate, for the reason that previous to 1907 the summons cases were not recorded. However, the report, on page thirteen, says: "It is impossible to

tall how many summons cases there were previous to 1907, but the number was very small." It is also said that the 330 children in court on summons is the number for nine months (January 1, 1907, to October 1, 1907): hence the arrests on summons were at the rate of 440 per annum. The number of children arrested on warrant was in 1903-4, 116, and in 1906-7, 127. If the number arrested on summons previous to 1907 was "very small" and the number in 1907, contemporaneous with the first year of paid probation service, rose to the rate of 440, it is evident that our modern methods impose severer standards.

This emphasizes and hastens a plea that we shall no longer commit the error of branding as criminal the immature and helpless who have offended unconsciously. The committee recommends that an effort be made to have the criminal code so modified as to fix an arbitrary age at which moral responsibility shall be said to begin, with a provision that children under that age, who must be temporarily removed from society for their own good or the public safety, shall be committed to institutions as heretofore, but shall not be said to have committed crime.

The purpose of the proposed change is not to free a child from guilt or legal responsibility, but to withhold the distinctive mark that exposes the child to life-long disgrace. The age limit should be as high as is compatible with social welfare, but not below sixteen; that is, a child under sixteen who offends against the law ought not to be publicly proclaimed a thief or a burglar or worse, but should be said to be a mischievous youth. The circumstances leading to the commitment of a child should not be concealed from those charged with the correction and reformation of the child, but the public should not be permitted to inspect such records. It may be argued that any term commonly applied to the delinquencies of childhood would soon be understood to cover a multitude of serious sins, and would thus in the end become a reproach; but this is not probable, for the term could be made so vague and general that it need not be stigma. Our suggestion is not born of sentimentalism or impulsive sympathy. It comes from those who are striving to understand better and to safeguard better the interests of this large class, the care and protection of which is an act of great civic prudence and wisdom. The years between infancy and the dawn of adolescence are marked by important physical readjustments, unbalanced muscular development, impaired nutrition, unconscious and involuntary activity, and often

by incessant distractions that provoke error. Experts report more shipwrecks in these most critical years than during any other period in life. Usually children of the class in question are exposed to an unwholesome environment, and at this age they are plastic to their surroundings. They are dazed and perplexed and cannot reason according to adult standards, and the sharp distinctions and hard and fast classification applied to adults should not be applied to them.

President G. Stanley Hall says that "moral responsibility has generally been interpreted to begin at the age when right and wrong can first be distinguished. The age is arbitrary and yet legislation has to assume an age which differs much in different lands. The law of Italy fixed the line of demarkation at eight; Austria, Holland and Sweden at nine; Germany at eleven; England at sixteen. French law decreed that when an offender was younger than ten, it should be especially investigated whether or not he acted with discernment. Austria fixed fourteen as the age below which children, unless there were special inculcating circumstances, should not receive public punishment. The criminal code of the new German Empire excludes from legal responsibility those below twelve, while for those between twelve and eighteen, legal responsibility is made conditional.

Section eighteen of our penal code provides that "a child under the age of seven years is not capable of committing crime" and section nineteen of the same code reads, "a child of the age of seven years and under the age of twelve years is presumed to be incapable of crime, but the presumption may be removed by proof that he had sufficient capacity to understand the act or neglect charged against him and to know its wrongfulness." The criticism of the existing provisions of law on the subject is that only those below the age of seven are entirely exempt from the operations of laws applicable to adult offenders. For children seven and over, "the presumption may be removed" and in practice it too often is removed.

President King, discussing the paradox in influence, says two kinds of weaker brethren lay duties upon us — "not only those for whom eating flesh is sin and whom you stumble by eating, but also those for whom it is no sin and whom you stumble by making it a sin." Society should discharge the duty of undertaking to develop a proper conscience in children before inflicting upon them severe penalties.

In time we should devise a more scientifically precise test of responsibility of children than that proposed by your committee to-day. A thoroughly rational system would take into account essential factors other than age—particularly the degree of mental and physical development and the extent of a child's hereditary taint.

Fourth: Your committee is of the opinion that a large economy would be effected in charitable institutions and societies by the establishment of a central bureau of statistics and reports, or by designating an existing department as the depository for such data. At the present time, a large number of quasi-public hospitals and homes in New York City are required to make annual reports to the city, the state and the public. It almost always happens that the fiscal years do not coincide in more than two of the three cases: the city and the state board end their fiscal year September 30th; and as a rule the societies report to the public at the end of the calendar year.

The extra effort thus occasioned can best be appreciated if we think of a merchant required to inventory his stock two or three times every year. No one contends that any good cause has been advanced in the least, while it is evident that costly effort has been wasted. Detailed reports are also made at short intervals to the managers, the state board, the chief examiner of accounts, children's societies, probation officers, public school officials, the census bureau and to private societies engaged in compilation, comparison and study.

In some instances the executive head must make oath to the reports, and he must, therefore, have intimate knowledge of all the elements entering into them. A central bureau, to which schedules and histories of individual cases, financial statements and census reports could be sent for examination, generalization and preservation would result in uniformity and simplification of the machinery of the institutions. Greater economy in this instance would go hand in hand with greater efficiency. A complete exhibit of the whole subject of the state's intervention in this field would be provided and a broad and sound basis for a uniform standard of measuring certain social facts would thus be laid.

There are important lessons for the public to learn before its judgment can be definite and just. But the primary reason for proposing such a central bureau is that a very great saving of money would result. If it is true that institutions with a popu-

lation of upward of 500 must provide a special clerk for the extra demands, and if we assume that such clerk receives the equivalent of \$800 per annum, then the total cost of the existing system to New York City alone is little less than \$100,000 per annum.

MR. HILLES (Continuing): The first paper to be presented on behalf of the children is **Social and Civic Activities in Orphan Asylums**, by Dr. Ludwig B. Bernstein, superintendent of the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society, New York City.

Dr. Bernstein has specialized somewhat on the lines of social and civic work. He is entitled to twenty minutes in which to read his paper.

DR. LUDWIG B. BERNSTEIN: In dealing with the subject of social and civic activities in child-caring institutions and in discussing their effect upon the development of character and individuality among these children, I have decided to present it in the form of a personal experience rather than in that of theoretical and abstract generalizations. At the outset I wish to say that every earnest man dealing with the child-caring problem on a large scale will have to inject into his work his own personality, his own enthusiasm and his own philosophy. Owing to the great variety of child-caring institutions essentially different in aim, method and character, each superintendent will have to consider above all the particular conditions with which he is confronted.

What are the educational standards of his institution? This is a cardinal question indeed, because upon the answer to it will depend in a large measure the choice and character of activities that may either be included into or that may have to be excluded from such an institution. What the ages of the children under his care is another vital question, since it is apparent that an institution can develop along very much broader lines with boys and girls ranging in age from six to sixteen, than with children ranging in age from six to twelve years. Last, not least, there is the very important question of the moral calibre of the children that constitute the population of an institution.

With these preliminary remarks, I beg to submit to you my individual experience in a large Jewish Orphan Asylum with a daily census of about 725 children in the institution proper and of 325 children in its boarding and placing-out bureau, making a total population of 1,050 children. The latter are either orphans

or half orphans or children with both parents living whom we technically style dependent.

The children in our institution proper all attend the public schools and those who graduate from the elementary schools are given, as a matter of principle, an opportunity to take a course for at least one year either in the public high schools or in the technical institutes, or in the city and normal colleges of New York. If the boys and girls who receive a higher education can prove to the satisfaction of the management that they are making very good progress and that they are ranking high among their fellow students, they are allowed to continue in these various higher institutions of learning, and the most capable boys and girls are encouraged to complete their advanced education.

The average number of children sent to these higher institutions every school term ranges from thirty-five to forty, and the number of boys and girls in the last two years of elementary school averages not less than seventy-five. These 110 or 115 children, constituting as they do about fifteen per cent. of the total population in the institution proper, represent the moral and intellectual leaders among our boys and girls.

To supplement the education received by our wards in the public and elementary and high schools, technical schools and colleges, there are numerous classes maintained in the orphan asylum for religious instruction, for the musical development of the children as well as for their development in manual skill. Five men and seven women, the majority of whom have received a full high school education and in some instances a college training, are in daily contact with these children and are directly responsible for their welfare and happiness.

But we must go back five years to begin our story. At that time when I first started experimenting with social activities in our orphan asylum, the number of children receiving an education above the sixth school year represented about three per cent. of the population, and there were about seven supervisors in the institution for 725 children. The daily routine of the children was of the usual kind and precluded the supervisors from entering into the individual life of every child. Nor was the type of the supervisors that we had at that time of the same high grade as it is now. The majority of them were older men and women whose educational equipment and general training for child-caring work were rather inferior. The children coming in contact with

these supervisors were living in the narrow groove of institution monotony, interrupted only by their daily experience in outside schools, and the relations existing between the children and the adults were of the usual official and disciplinary nature. It was neither the much advertised, horrible check apron, nor the terrible bell, nor the institution oil-cloth in the dining-room that caused me to look around for ways and means now to avoid institutionalism. To the thoughtful man and woman these are matters of little moment. They appeal to the superficial and sentimental observer, but they do not strike at the root of the thing. I felt very much concerned about the character of the relations between the adults and the children, about the want of humane, humanizing and character building influences. The relations were official, nothing more or less. The supervisors were strict disciplinarians and disciplinarians only, and the children were judged solely from the point of view of their conduct as affecting institution rules and institution routine.

At first, by way of experiment a few clubs for the younger children were introduced, the club leaders being experienced kindergarten teachers who devoted a few evenings a week to games, songs and chats with our children. The supervisors complained that the little boys and girls were rather noisy and excited after the club meetings, and that they disturbed some of the other children in the dormitories. The grave nature of this complaint did not, however, prevent the management from noticing that the effect upon the children of their free and easy contact with two women of refinement and culture, who had come to the institution as outside friends and who were not standing in an official relation to them, had injected into the little boys and girls a degree of happiness which was exceedingly gratifying. The beautiful stories and fairy tales that the club leaders had told the children had made a powerful impression upon them. The possibility of communicating to their club leaders all their little childish troubles, worries and joys had almost revolutionized them. They fairly mobbed the superintendent in an attempt to tell him of the glorious times that they had spent with their club leaders.

After making sure that the two clubs were a success, the superintendent addressed a communication to the Alumni Association of his institution asking for some volunteer club leaders among the professional men and women who belonged to that organization. In return he received offers from not less than ten gradu-

ates of the institution and he selected four, turning again his attention to the younger children. The disturbance in the dormitories naturally assumed larger proportions, but the happiness of the children grew in a similar ratio.

Then came a period when many children asked for the privilege of belonging to a club and when it was deemed advisable to go outside of the Alumni Association to secure suitable material for club leaders; and after ten clubs had been established, a director of social activities was engaged for the sole purpose of organizing club work on a more comprehensive scale. We thereupon proceeded energetically to form more and more clubs among the boys and girls until at last we were able to accommodate nearly ninety-five per cent. of our children in the thirty-eight clubs that had gradually been established. To-day the clubs have become so popular among the children that it is considered by them one of the gravest punishments to be deprived of the privilege of belonging to a club. The clubs are, of course, carefully graded along educational lines and the club work is thoroughly prepared by the club leader.

The club leaders themselves have been formed into a strong organization for two distinct purposes: to promote unity of aim and method and to keep in touch with the parents and relatives of the children of the institution. The meetings of the Club Leaders' Association are conducted by officers elected from among them, in co-operation with honorary officers representing the executive staff of the institution.

Although considerable changes had in the meanwhile been effected in our staff by way of eliminations and important additions, there was very little sympathy with the new movement to be found among the supervisors at the beginning. The club leaders were charged by them with sowing seeds of discontent among the children; it was claimed that "the outsiders" were undermining the discipline and were beginning to know too much about the institution.

But gradually the supervisors began to realize the value of the new movement. The contact of our children with refined personalities, the friendships that were established, the happiness that was injected, the sympathetic interest in the individual child, all these were gradually recognized by them as new forces tending to elevate the moral tone among the children and tending ultimately to change completely the conception of discipline. The super-

visors themselves became eligible for membership in the Club Leaders' Association, and a few of them are now doing excellent club work. We allow the club leaders to take their small groups of children to the theater, to the museum, to various places of historic interest, to parks and playgrounds, to outings, etc., and to the club leaders' homes. There are clubs dealing with biography, history, literature, civics and debating pure and simple; there are clubs for the purpose of studying art, particularly painting; in a good many instances they touch on ethical problems of every-day life arising in the institution and are thus distinctly supplementing our moral education. The knowledge acquired by the club leaders of the incidents and events in the institution frequently serves as a basis of conferences between the club leaders and supervisors who have made peace at last and are working harmoniously for the best interests of the children.

The club work has likewise helped us to establish very much more natural relations between the girls and boys; at first timid and shy toward one another, they have gradually learned to treat one another with spontaneous courtesy. The senior club, which is made up of our maturest boys and girls, is frequently taking the initiative in matters directly affecting the welfare of their younger brothers and sisters.

There is one more phase of our club work which I wish to mention specifically and that is the fact that the club leaders have furnished the manager of the institution with a great deal of intelligent and unbiased information and have opened his eyes to certain shortcomings and to some important needs. The stimulus received from organized social effort for and by the children has likewise made itself felt in a complete reorganization of the plan, scope and method of conducting our games and plays and of the playground itself. As is well known to the thoughtful observer of child-life, the playground and playroom are important factors not only for the socialization of the child, but still more for his individualization.

To sum up, the club work has brought a great deal of happiness to our children. It has brought out and is bringing out the best that there is in the individual child; it effects for almost every child a strong personal relation with a personality of sympathy, education, refinement and perhaps what is most important of all, of an extra institutional viewpoint; it has helped to establish valuable friendships between the children and their club leaders; it

has helped to raise the morals of the institution; it has inspired the officials directly charged with the care and supervision of the children; it has tended to inculcate in the individual child a higher conception of life; it has helped to instill many lessons of practical ethics, lessons of loyalty, respect, courtesy and unselfishness; it has put a higher, nobler and broader interpretation upon institution aims and purposes and upon institution discipline and has been a powerful stimulus in introducing many valuable reforms and changes in the institution policy.

But club work alone did not seem to me to solve the problem. As was indicated before, the spirit of discipline had undergone a very considerable change. We had once for all broken with the old conception of discipline which seemed to be the relation of privileged autocrats towards the nonprivileged oppressed. For a number of years I had been used to the public elementary and high school routine and discipline with large groups of children, but it seemed to me that the school discipline was altogether too formal, too rigid, too showy and institutional to be used as a method of government at home. I was impressed with the two factors of modern education; individualization on one side and socialization on the other. I was impressed with the fact that German and American educational philosophy, likewise emphasizing its sociological aspect, was preaching the doctrine of quickening the social sense in the growing population, and in doing so was proposing such plans as carefully prepared school excursions, tramping parties, school exercises, team work and athletics, study of man in common by visiting shops, etc. To the earnest man engaged in child-caring work in an educational spirit, it naturally suggested itself that there were many much more numerous and powerful opportunities offered for co-operative work, for team work in the broadest sense of the term in a child-caring institution than ordinary schools could ever offer, in fact that there was almost an *embaras de richesse* of possibilities of this kind.

The possibility of organizing groups of children into small co-operative units imbued with a common aim and goal and working for a common social end naturally presents itself in a child-caring institution in hundreds of ways. Nor does the doctrine of socialization work to the exclusion of individualization.

On the contrary, to anyone familiar with child life in the individual and child-life on a large scale, it is quite clear that

the forces of socialization help very considerably to develop the individual traits in the characters of the children. It is only where growing character comes in contact with other numerous growing characters that there is the greatest likelihood for development of strength and firmness. The haughty and the timid boy, the boy of courage and the cowardly boy, the generous, chivalrous boy and the selfish boy, the patient and motherly girl, the whimsical girl, the gushy girl, the deceitful girl, the girl of sweetness of character and the girl who is willing to sacrifice herself for her younger sisters — what an endless variety of characters to study and how innumerable the ways of polishing off all the sharp corners by rubbing against one another!

Yet, although the possibilities for organizing effective character-building team work are abundant, it cannot be denied that in some institutions even this phase is not taken advantage of for social or educational purposes. Nor can it be denied that the *en masse* treatment prevails where distinct social work on a large and high plane can be performed.

What an enormous difference there is between the blind *en masse* action of large groups of children and the self-conscious intelligent team work with its wonderful possibilities for the development of life, character, personality and individuality! Prompted by these general considerations, I decided, in view of the change of character in the discipline that had been brought about by the introduction of our club work, to do away entirely with the so-called autocratic method of government and to introduce a limited self-government plan, in harmony with sound educational theory and practice. The desirability of the plan was admitted by the staff on theoretical grounds, but they were strenuously opposed to introducing it as a working principle. In the meanwhile every effort was made by the management to train the children in parliamentary procedure, the clubs being, of course utilized to great advantage in this direction.

About two and a half years ago the manager announced to the four hundred and fifty boys assembled that he was willing to do away with the captains and monitors and that he desired the boys to elect their own delegates or representatives to a large meeting and that then we would proceed with the formation of the Boys' City Republic. I will not tire you by recounting step by step the history of the Boys' Republic. Let me mention briefly that there were days of great anxiety and excitement; there was

fear among some of the officials that anarchy would follow in the wake of such declaration; there were occasions when the supervisors justly felt that their dignity was very considerably shaken; there were days when it seemed as if the republic was a transitory, visionary theory, a *pium desideratum*.

Then followed days of rejoicing and weeks and months of great happiness. The older boys had, after a brief but eventful period of transition, shown themselves fully capable of coping with the situation, under the guidance of the management and the supervisors, who had cast aside completely all officialdom and were working harmoniously and enetically towards one end; and after four months had elapsed, the Boys' Republic had victoriously passed its storm and stress period; the mayor and the president of the council and the councilmen as well as the assistant councilmen and the other officers of the republic were duly installed and were conscientiously performing their respective duties as defined by the constitution.

The supervisors who had risen from the position of disciplinarians to the very much higher plane of friends and advisers of the children, began to take the initiative in introducing new activities in the republic and were working and scheming with the officers among the children on various resolutions, amendments, etc., the management, of course, never for a moment losing its grip of the situation, keeping in constant touch with his staff, with the officers of the republic, advising, guiding, adding, eliminating and correcting until the constitution seemed to have adjusted itself to the conditions and the new plan to be working in perfect order which it has done now for the past two years. Half a year after the birth of the Boys' Republic, the management having in the meanwhile gained considerable experience, quickly proceeded with the formation of a Girl's City Republic which is likewise running to-day in perfect shape.

For your information, I wish to remark that our republic constitution does not provide for a jail, it does not even provide for a police department or a detective bureau, nor does it allow any show speeches on the part of the counsel for defense. As a matter of principle, the republic has eliminated all such features as might tend to foster a spirit of pretense, insincerity or tale-telling. It has eliminated all such features as in the judgment of the management might prove a source of mistraining or mis-education.

Once a week the officers of the republic, the councilmen and the officials of the institution assemble for a meeting of the Council, when the voice of the republic is heard, when suggestions are made by the borough presidents for their various boroughs, and by the councilmen for their various districts, or when policies are adopted for the conduct and welfare of the republic. It was soon suggested that in order to teach the citizens economic values the republic establish a co-operative store and a savings bank, that officers of the republic should keep a careful record of the expenditures made by citizens and that they should use the time when the citizens drew their little savings for the purpose of inculcating practical lessons in economy. The citizens have also taken charge of the library maintained by the institution; they have formed various athletic leagues, skating societies, play-ground associations, a health department and a Court of Honor. In order to spread the doctrine of self-government among all the citizens, particularly among the younger, and in order to train suitable material for future councilmen or representatives well versed in parliamentary law and procedure, the republic has instituted on its own initiative, a miniature republic for each individual district or group of twenty-five children. All the republic activities are conducted under the guidance and supervision and with the most intelligent co-operation of the officials of the institution. I wish to emphasize this particular point, because in my judgment it would be a great error to allow children to run a self-government plan without the most careful supervision, without the most devoted co-operation on the part of the staff of officers or without constant constructive aid on the part of the management.

Let me also say that this method of running a child-caring institution calls for a great deal more expenditure in time and energy; requires a great deal more of thought and close attention than the customary monarchic or monitorial system. But only the man who has had experience in both methods, the old institution method of discipline and the plan of a limited self-government, can realize the enormous difference in the spirit of discipline, the powerful effect upon the characters and individualities of the children and upon the morals in general.

What are the advantages of self-government?

As conducted in our institution, it cultivates in the children a spontaneous respect for higher authority, obedience to estab-

lished law, ambition among the children to rise among their fellows; it cultivates a degree of civic pride which no doubt will make itself felt for good when the children become citizens of our larger country; above all it fosters a spirit of manhood, of independence and of self-reliance; it changes completely the mental and moral attitude of the individual child toward society and more particularly toward the community of which he is a part; instead of training the child to blind submission and blind obedience, it helps him to evolve, to clarify, to rationalize into moral precepts and judgments what would otherwise appear to him oppressive and repulsive laws. It helps the individual participating as he does in the establishment of laws and rules of conduct for his own guidance to ascend a much higher plane of moral judgment. In the institution that I am speaking of, self-government more than anything else has helped to counteract tendencies of institutionalism. The free opportunity given to each individual child to make suggestions, to complain, to express his dissatisfaction and to help in improving his own condition and the conditions of his fellows cannot but have the effect of completely removing the spirit of abject submission to the whims, likes and dislikes of the adults with whom he may come in contact. This freedom is rationally counterbalanced by the duties which each individual child has to perform. But the response to the call of duty becomes under such circumstances very much more spontaneous, very much more cheerful and, therefore, very much more character-building.

Can self-government with a sudden jump usurp the place of the old established institution discipline? My answer is emphatically no. Every one of you will agree with me that there are certain essential conditions necessary before self-government can be introduced to the real advantage of children and without danger to the just requirements of a rational institution discipline. In my experience, the following are some of the most important conditions:

A substantial school curriculum enabling the institution to draft into its services a number of intelligent boys and girls who have had at least the equivalent of a seven years' elementary school curriculum; an emphasis on higher education as a privilege for the brightest boys and brightest girls; a variety of social activities in the institution, together with ample opportunity for what may be called intelligent team work; a high-minded, intelligent staff of co-workers who will be in harmony and sympathy

with such a radical change and who will stand by the colors during a brief storm and stress period, marking the period of transition; and above all a manager imbued with a high conception of his duties and responsibilities, with a high conception of the aims and purposes of a child-caring institution, especially as far as they relate to the future lives and careers of his children; a man who has a firm grasp of the situation and can judge of institution incidents in their true relation to the moral and mental growth of children; a man who can inspire his associates to work persistently, intelligently and loyally, and who has the necessary educational equipment for an intelligent insight into child nature.

I may be pardoned here for a brief mention of a problem which is essentially related to the question that we just discussed, I refer to the problem of after-care, which to-day so seriously engages the attention of the profession. The difficulties which present themselves to the institution child upon his initial contact with the world are relative to the preparation that he has had for this contact; in other words, the problem of after-care is already partially solved with children who have an adequate educational equipment, such as outlined above. This must, of course, be supplemented by placing the child in a suitable position where he can be more or less under the supervision of the institution for a certain time. To keep up the relations with such children is, of course, one of the duties of an institution and as a matter of fact, a number of orphan asylums have formed their alumni organizations and through the aid of those have kept in touch with their graduates. In the case of one institution the manager has reserved one evening each week which he spends with his alumni in friendly social intercourse. In another case that has come to my notice, the superintendent of an orphan asylum has been in touch with every one of his alumni for the past twenty-five years. I refer to Dr. Wolfenstein, of the Jewish Orphan Asylum in Cleveland, whose untiring work along the lines of after-care extended over many years, has resulted in establishing for his graduates a record of careers far above the average.

The real difficulty met with in the after-care of children is in the cases of those who have not received a sufficient education or a sufficient industrial equipment to help them along in their struggle for an honest existence, or who may have gone astray and who need some helping hand to turn them again into useful members of society.

That an alumni association might prove to be of incalculable value even in such cases no one will deny. But something more concrete is needed, and that is to my mind the services of a graduate who is intimately acquainted with the children and who is professionally engaged in looking after them, someone who from the very first day of the discharge of a child will make it his business to advise, to help, to assist, to guide and to encourage the weaker, and who in return will receive full support from his Alma Mater, moral and financial if necessary, to carry on his work. But let me emphasize again, with morally dependent children, the main reason for failure in life is the lack of a substantial education and rational training, and therefore the lack of proper equipment for life.

I cannot too strongly urge upon my colleagues in the profession the vital necessity of broadening and enlarging the school curriculum for their children and the importance of emphasizing trades and industries. I cannot urge upon them strongly enough the necessity of bringing into play early in the lives of the children a variety of socializing activities, tending to bring out the individuality of the child and a conception of discipline which will be truly humanizing and character-building. All these advantages combined will help to minimize the problem of the after-care of children and will likewise do away with many of the just and of the unjust, intelligent and unintelligent, earnest and childish criticisms which are being directed sensationally, promiscuously and indiscriminately against the group or institution method of taking care of children.

CONSTITUTION OF THE BOYS' REPUBLIC OF THE HEBREW SHELTERING GUARDIAN SOCIETY, ORPHAN ASYLUM, NEW YORK.

ARTICLE I.

Name.

This organization shall be known as the Boys' Republic of the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Orphan Asylum, of New York.

ARTICLE II.

Object.

The object of this organization shall be to secure for its children the privileges and advantages of self-government, and to impress upon them the duties of good and intelligent American citizens.

ARTICLE III.

Divisions of the City.

Section 1. This city shall be divided into wards or districts.

§ 2. No more than twenty-five citizens shall constitute a single ward or district.

§ 3. These wards shall be grouped into larger bodies called boroughs.

§ 4. No more than five districts or wards shall comprise a single borough.

ARTICLE IV.

Citizens, Rights, etc.

Section 1. All members of this community who have been inmates of the Boys' Department for more than three months, shall be citizens of this city.

§ 2. All citizens shall enjoy the right of suffrage unless legally deprived of same.

§ 3. No citizen shall be qualified for the office of councilman who has not been in the Boys' Department for more than six months.

§ 4. No boy shall be eligible for the office of mayor or borough president who has not been a citizen of good standing for at least nine months.

ARTICLE V.

Duties of Citizens.

It shall be the duty of each citizen to cast his vote whenever the opportunity may present itself, to observe the laws and to assist others to observe the same, and by every reasonable means to promote the well being of the community.

ARTICLE VI.

Officers and Terms.

Section 1. The officers of this city shall be a mayor, a borough president, a treasurer, one councilman for each district, a senior councilman of each borough and a sanitary chief.

§ 2. The mayor and the borough president shall be elected by a majority vote of the citizens, and shall serve for one year. They may be re-elected once, but they shall not serve for more than two consecutive terms.

§ 3. The treasurer shall be elected by a majority vote of the councilmen, and must be a member of the board of councilmen.

§ 4. Each district shall elect its own councilman, who shall serve for one school term.

§ 5. The senior councilmen from each borough shall be appointed by the mayor from the body of councilmen, and shall serve for one school term. This appointment shall be subject to the approval of a majority of the councilmen.

§ 6. The sanitary chief shall be appointed by the mayor. He shall serve for one year.

§ 7. All officers shall enter upon their respective duties one day after election.

ARTICLE VII.

Section 1. Nominations shall be made by convention.

§ 2. Each district shall hold a primary election not less than five days and not more than one week before each general election, and shall choose certain of its citizens to represent it in a nominating convention.

§ 3. In the first borough, each district shall send one-sixth of its citizens to such convention, in the second borough each district shall send one-seventh of its citizens, in the third borough, each district shall send one-tenth of its citizens, and in the fourth borough, each district shall send one-fifteenth of its citizens. In the above reckoning more than one-half shall be considered as one.

§ 4. This convention shall meet at least two days before each general election, and after appointing its chairman and secretary, shall nominate by majority vote of its members, not more than three candidates for each of the offices of mayor and of president of the borough. It shall be the duty of the secretary of this convention to post the result of such meeting on the bulletin board within one hour after the meeting has been adjourned.

ARTICLE VIII.

Elections.

Section 1.— The election for mayor and borough president shall be held the first Saturday in July.

§ 2. The election for councilman shall be held on the last Saturday in January and the last Sunday in July.

§ 3. At the first meeting of the new Council, a treasurer and a senior councilman for each borough shall be selected.

§ 4. In case of a tie at any general election, the City Council shall select one of the candidates.

§ 5. The City Council shall decide upon the manner of voting and the method of counting the vote.

ARTICLE IX.

Section 1. The legislative power of this city shall be vested in a single house to be known as the City Council.

§ 2. The City Council shall consist of a mayor, a borough president, and a councilman for each district as already provided.

§ 3. A majority of all the members elected to the Council shall form a quorum.

§ 4. Regular meeting of the City Council shall be held every Sunday. Special meetings of this body may be called either by the mayor or at the request of a majority of the councilmen.

§ 5. The mayor shall preside at these meetings. Should he for any reason be unable to attend such meetings, this duty shall devolve upon the president of the Council.

ARTICLE X.

Section 1. Each district shall be represented in the Council by its respective councilman.

§ 2. Ex-mayors and former borough presidents may enjoy the privilege of a seat in the Council and may take active part in the discussions, but shall not be entitled to cast a vote.

§ 3. The sanitary chief shall not participate in any discussions except those pertaining to his work and duties. He shall not be permitted to cast a vote on any question.

ARTICLE XI.

Power of Council.

Section 1. The City Council shall have the power to make all laws and to enact such resolutions as will in any way benefit the citizens of this community.

§ 2. No ordinance that has been proposed shall be passed unless it meets with the approval of a majority of the councilmen.

§ 3. No ordinance or resolution of the Council shall go into effect without having the mayor's signature affixed to it. If such an ordinance meets with the disapproval of the mayor, he shall turn the same and make known his objections to the Council

within five days. If he has taken no action within the specified time, this ordinance shall become a law without the mayor's signature. If this same ordinance or resolution vetoed by the mayor after being reconsidered by the body of councilmen, meets with the approval of at least two-thirds of its members, it shall go into effect.

§ 4. Immediately after an ordinance or resolution passed by the City Council has become a law, it shall be posted on the bulletin board. If within five days a petition signed by at least fifteen per cent. of the voters, shall be presented to the city clerk asking that such a law be submitted to a vote of the citizens, he shall issue a notice for a special vote to be taken on the following Saturday or Sunday by all the citizens of the community.

§ 5. The City Council may at any time introduce such new departments as are not mentioned in this constitution.

ARTICLE XII.

Section 1. The chief executive authority shall be vested in the mayor.

§ 2. In case of removal or resignation or inability of the mayor to discharge his duties, the same shall devolve upon the president of the Council.

ARTICLE XIII.

Duties and Powers of the Mayor.

Section 1. It shall be the duty of the mayor to take care that all laws are faithfully carried out. For this purpose he may require the heads of the various departments to assist and advise him.

§ 2. It shall be the duty of the mayor to recommend to the consideration of the board of councilmen such measures as he shall deem necessary and expedient for the general welfare of the city.

§ 3. It shall be the duty of the mayor to appoint from the body of councilmen a city clerk whose duty it shall be to keep the minutes of the city council, and to keep the reports and records not kept by the head of the department.

§ 4. It shall be the duty of the mayor to temporarily fill all offices left vacant for any reason, and to appoint with the consent of the City Council such new officers as may be necessary. In case of a vacancy in the City Council the appointees of the mayor

shall fill the vacancy not longer than one week, during which time that district shall meet to elect its new councilman. If the office to be filled is one requiring the consent of the majority of the Council, such as treasurer, etc., the appointees of the mayor shall hold office till after the next meeting of the councilmen.

§ 5. The mayor shall have the power to dismiss all officers whom he has appointed, he shall also have the right to remove elected officers, provided he secure the consent of at least two-thirds of the councilmen.

ARTICLE XIV.

Administrative Department.

Section 1. There shall be the following administrative departments:

1. Department of Law and Order.
2. Sanitary Department.

§ 2. The president of the Council shall be head of the former department and a sanitary chief shall be the head of the latter department.

ARTICLE XV.

Duties of Heads of Departments.

Section 1. It shall be the duty of the president of the Council to see that all councilmen faithfully perform their respective duties.

§ 2. Occasionally during the day, the president of the Council shall make a general inspection of the building to see that no citizens are in it who do not belong there, and to see further that everything is in its proper place.

§ 3. The borough president shall also make inspections of the building at times when citizens are supposed to be therein, in order to see that all various activities are carried on without any unnecessary disturbance.

ARTICLE XVI.

Duties of Sanitary Chief.

Section 1. The sanitary chief shall have the power to appoint citizens who will compose the sanitary squad.

§ 2. The sanitary chief, assisted by his sanitary squad, shall look after the general cleanliness of the playgrounds, playrooms and study rooms.

DUTIES OF OTHER OFFICERS.

ARTICLE XIV.

Duties of Councilmen.

Section 1. It shall be the duty of each councilman to maintain order and to look after the general cleanliness of all citizens in his district.

§ 2. Each councilman shall appoint a vice-councilman, who shall act in his absence, and he may also appoint a secretary to keep an accurate account of the supplies drawn for his districts. The secretary shall also keep a record of the behavior of the citizens in his ward.

§ 3. The councilmen shall have the power to exercise their authority over all citizens of this community during all periods of recreation.

§ 4. No councilman shall be obliged by his district to propose any laws before the board of councilmen unless petitioned by at least two-thirds of the citizens of each district.

ARTICLE XVIII.

Duties of Senior Councilmen of Each Borough.

The senior councilmen shall preside at such meetings of the councilmen of his borough as may be called for the special purpose of discussing matters particularly affecting his borough.

ARTICLE XIX.

Duties of Treasurer.

It shall be the duty of the treasurer to keep an accurate account of the attendance at each meeting of the board of councilmen, and to record the income and expenditures of money.

At the end of each month, he shall hand a statement of the financial condition to the city clerk, who shall read it to the councilmen and keep it for future reference.

ARTICLE XX.

Amendments.

Section 1. This constitution may be amended at any time by a three-quarter vote of the members of the City Council, provided

that such an amendment be ratified by the mayor and by a majority vote of the citizens. Such amendments must also meet with the approval of the superintendent.

§ 2. This constitution shall take effect after it has met with the consent of the city council and has been ratified by a majority vote of the citizens and has been approved by the superintendent.

Amendment No. 1.

“In order to spread the doctrine of lessons of self-government to every individual child, and more effectively to arouse a true democratic spirit, it shall be the duty of each councilman to organize a miniature government in his own district.”

THE CHAIRMAN: The discussion of this excellent paper by Dr. Bernstein will be opened by Charles H. Johnson, of Albany.

CHARLES H. JOHNSON: The time is so far advanced, that instead of attempting any discussion on this paper, I will simply outline what I had attempted to say, and the remainder of the subject will be found in the printed minutes of the Conference.

In the discussion of this interesting paper of Dr. Bernstein's, there seems to be no place for criticism. When a method has been put into such practical and successful operation as the one that he describes it passes beyond the realm of criticism. The basis of this discussion would seem to be to learn the principles underlying the methods and to ascertain how far they are applicable to other institutions.

The first essential seems to be the necessity of an aim for the institution. Before there can be any discussion of method, there must be a definite comprehension of aim. Every institution must have a well-defined object toward which it is striving daily. Unless there be such an object, methods will be haphazard, lack co-ordination and make progress impossible.

There can be but one excuse for the existence of a children's institution and that is to give not only life but a more abundant life than the pupils otherwise could enjoy. This must be the goal of institution effort. The institution has by no means fulfilled this mission, however, when it has provided a better physical life or better raiment. Life is more than meat and drink or even raiment. The low mortality rate of institutions, with the exception of infant asylums, indicates that institution children are well

cared for physically. In spite of this physical welfare, there is generating a distinct dissatisfaction among social workers to-day with institutional methods. This dissatisfaction is finding its expression in two ways: The one which would discard all institutional care of children, condemning all institutions as derogatory to the best interests of a child and the other which, recognizing the necessity of the institution demands that it shall be so conducted that the development of individuality and the building up of character through the formation of good habits is permissible. The severest indictment against the institution has been its detrimental effect on individuality. The children's institution to justify its existence to-day must have a broader conception of its mission than it has had hitherto. It must be a training school for future citizens of a democracy.

The second point worthy of notice is that the nature of the plant is of comparative unimportance. It seems generally to be supposed that a certain type of plant such as the cottage system, is essential to the development of social activities and individuality among the children. In this case we have a plant on the barrack system with almost 800 children carrying on advanced work in social and individual development. The essential evidently is not so much the plant as the method.

The third element noticeable is the importance of the attitude of the executive officer. If this attitude is one of mere officialism, or if it is a spirit of hopelessness, very little will be done under any system, cottage, pavilion or barrack, toward developing the individuality of the child. There is tendency in some minds to segregate institution children into a class by themselves, as if by reason of their destitution there can be no development in them similar to that found in children outside of institutions. Toward the dissipation of this feeling help may be obtained from the latest developments in biology and sociology. The biologist maintains that individuals are at birth more nearly on a plane of equality than our ancestors ever before dreamed. He maintains that in the human germ cell from which the individual life springs, lie all the qualities of a normal manhood. These qualities are latent, however, and await a proper opportunity to unfold themselves much as does the bud of a flower.

The sociologist comes forward with complementary evidence. Science is daily revealing to him that in environment are to be found the chief causes of disease, poverty and crime. "Both

biology and sociology unite in saying, would you improve man you must first improve his environment." The institution furnishes the environment. It has a greater opportunity for the development of individuality in its pupils than has the public school. The institution is not only school but home for the child and furnishes but a part. Recognizing this possibility in his pupils and this opportunity in his institution, the executive will bring into the institution an atmosphere of hopefulness that will make growth of individuality possible. This atmosphere will be one of freedom. This does not mean anarchy, but a liberty which is regulated by law.

A fourth item of interest is that concerning discipline. If there is one word more than another which has been a fetish before which institution executives have worshiped to the exclusion of all other things, it has been the word discipline. This word has come to mean constant repression, and constant repression makes for the dwarfing of the individual instead of for growth.

The institution must stand for expression and not repression. The schoolroom, cottage or ward where every inmate steps on tiptoes, talks in whispers, sits rigid, may be a well-disciplined place, but the educator will hardly feel that it is an educational atmosphere. Repression is a negative quantity. It may possibly hinder the development of evil, but it produces nothing good. Education is expression. It awakens dormant sympathies and latent senses of responsibility.

What is true of nations is true of institutions and individuals. The most characterless countries are those in which men have been kept good by repression and force. The word discipline "must imply the formation of a habitual reaction that shall function with little or no effort or attention after it has once been firmly established" and this habitual reaction must come from inner development and not from outward pressure.

It may not be possible for all institutions to develop social and individual activities along the same lines as those followed by Dr. Bernstein. Many are situated in rural communities where outside help is not obtainable. Others have no such body of alumni to call upon and many situated even in cities find it difficult to secure outside aid which is constant in its work.

It is, therefore, necessary for all of us to work out our salvation along our own individual line. Every detail of the institu-

tion life should be made to assist in the development of individuality. It should be constantly borne in mind that the institution exists for the child and not the child for the institution. The problem of the institution is not to become a denaturing process, as much as, to use the phrase of the steel works, "a converter" where the dependent child is by instruction and training to be converted into a self-respecting individual.

Whenever opportunity occurs, the pupil should be placed on its own responsibility. Perhaps but little can be done toward self-expression before the beginning of adolescence. With the beginning of this period, the tendency to development of individuality is a normal one and the educator has but to watch carefully nature's efforts and by taking advantage of her operations, to work along the line of least resistance. After the ninth or tenth year in a child's life, there is not only a sex divergence in which each sex develops along its own peculiar mental and social line, but the individuals of both sexes will indicate their own personal divergence one from another. A machine will make a thousand pieces each exactly alike, but the Creator makes no two pieces of His creation similar.

Pestalozzi had this perhaps in mind when he said that the individuality of a child should be held sacred by the teacher. The institution therefore which by unwise repression or negative discipline, by the mere herding together of a large number of children in whom the personal dynamic is destroyed in order that the mechanics of the institution may be effective, transgresses the Creator's plan.

The playground which in the words of Dr. Gulick gives to the individual the opportunity for mastering of his body and also gives the opportunity for the social experiences of democracy, of self and group government; the schoolroom where the child is not simply furnished with ideas, but where the trained teacher seeks to truly educate, *i. e.*, to lead out the latent powers of the pupil; the debating society where the individual finds self-expression in setting forth and maintaining against opposition his or her own ideas; the boys' club where the members elect their own officers and submit voluntarily to parliamentary rules and practice; the co-operation of the pupils in the management of the institution by establishing codes of penalty, in short the reproduction in the institution of the normal life of the outside

world, and the contact as much as possible with that outside world may all make for social and individual development.

The child placed in charge of a classroom during the temporary absence of the teacher, answering the school bell without the prodding of a caretaker, permission to dress dissimilarly, opportunities to earn, spend and save money, individual rooms for the older children, and constant appeal to the sense of responsibility, will all assist in making the child a living individual and not a mere irresponsible cog in a great machine. To use another figure, the average children's institution has had too many prods and props to permit individual development.

The change from a monarchical to a more democratic form of government, however, must not be too sudden. Even the best disposed will lose their balance. Periods of transition are fraught with danger. Privileges and responsibilities must not be given in greater portions than can be assimilated at one time. Too many braces should not be removed at once. It should also be distinctly understood that before there will be any increase in privileges, those already given must be understood. The development of individuality in children cannot be reduced to an automatic process.

It must take account of varying conditions. It must take into consideration the environment and previous training of each child. The mass method cannot be successfully employed. Each individual stands out as a distinct personality and for this reason must be handled in the light of his own peculiar personality. Large institutions with several hundreds of children can only attempt the development of individuality by breaking up the mass into groups of sufficient size to enable the teacher or overseer to know the individual peculiarity of each member of the group. Large classes of children in institution schools requiring a teacher to daily superintend the development of sixty or seventy children of widely varying grades are detrimental to the effort and personal contact so necessary in the development of individuality.

In this process of development there will be many discouragements. All the traits of cunning and dishonesty which have appeared in the development of the race will come to the surface in the development of the individual. Then the pruning process becomes necessary, and this is where the greatest wisdom must be exercised. The un-skillful pruner has destroyed many a valuable plant.

The development of individuality needs not only nurture but wise direction. It should not be an unguided growth. The restraints and the reasons for them, however, should be understood. A child differs from a plant in that it has a mind or soul, however rudimentary, to which appeal may be made. Even punishments should be educational. As a modern educator has put it, "In education the child's individuality is preserved, but is pruned and guided. He himself furnishes the impulse toward his own development, but the channels in which this force acts and the end toward which it directs itself are determined for him."

Perhaps no better ideal for the educator and the institution which is attempting to develop the latent powers in a group of destitute children can be found than in the words of the late Alice Freeman Palmer concerning an entirely different class of pupils. "I will try to be a friend to them all and put all that is truest and sweetest, sunniest and strongest that I can gather, into their lives. While I teach them solid knowledge and give them real school drill as faithfully as I may, I will give too, all that the years have brought to my own soul. God help to give what He gave — myself — and make that self worth something to somebody; teach me to help all as He has helped, for the sake of the infinite possibilities in every human soul."

THE CHAIRMAN: The further discussion of this valuable paper will be postponed until the next paper has been read. We are to hear from Judge Benjamin J. Shove, of Syracuse, New York, on the subject of The Duty of the State to Support Destitute and Neglected Children. This deals with the question of children as they are affected by the child labor law and compulsory education law. I take pleasure in presenting Judge Shove.

JUDGE BENJAMIN J. SHOVE: The subject assigned is so big, the time prescribed so limited, that in presenting this theme for discussion I shall take up but one phase of the subject; that is, the duty of the state to its dependent and destitute children within the family; such duty being viewed especially in its relation to the compulsory education and child labor laws.

We — I prefer the personal word rather than the impersonal word "state," thus bringing our duty into much clearer range of vision,— we say to the child, speaking in general terms, you must attend school until a certain age and acquire, if possible, in that

time a certain amount of education, and during that time, with certain exceptions, you cannot work in either mercantile establishment or factory.

We believe in these laws, demand their enforcement, rejoice in their results. It seems to me that no thoughtful person, who has studied the question in the least, will ever consent that these laws be repealed or impaired in the slightest degree. Their necessity was never more apparent than now, as we see the continued immigration of the uneducated from foreign lands; knowing, as we do, that their only chance and our only hope of their assimilation with us and with our civilization is through the education of their children. But, having enacted these laws, have we not sat down with folded hands, complacent in the thought — or lack of thought — that by their enactment we have provided fully for the education and welfare of our children and so have accomplished our whole duty in that respect? We have provided free schools and free text-books. Have we then done our whole duty to our dependent and destitute children when we say to them, now, having provided these things for you, you cannot work in store or factory, but you must go to school? Let me answer that question by citing two or three cases, coming within my personal observation. These cases are typical of many cases in the city of Syracuse alone, and no doubt of many hundreds of similar cases in New York City and throughout the state.

Some time ago a boy thirteen years of age was brought into our children's court, charged with truancy, failing to attend school. When the boy was asked why he was out of school, he said he had to stay home to take care of the younger children while his mother was out at work. His mother was sent for, a frail creature, earning about \$6 a week going out washing. She said she could earn more if she were only stronger. The father died the year before, after a long sickness, leaving nothing but debts. Had been a good mechanic and good wage earner, but what very little he had been able to save had gone during his sickness. Five children to care for. The oldest boy in court, the youngest, a two-year-old baby. The seven and ten-year olds in school. John, the eldest, had to stay at home to take care of the two and four-year olds, while the mother was out to earn their living. Surely, a very commonplace and very old story.

Another case: A little girl thirteen years old brought in last winter for stealing coal with her brother ten years old. Why not

in school? Father had run away, mother sick and almost helpless. The girl had no suitable clothes. There were three younger children and another expected; the girl was obliged to stay home to look after these younger children. Investigation showed the family destitute. The little ten-year-old boy was clad in the slightest clothing, was wearing a pair of woman's shoes, several sizes too big for him, leaking in every portion, which, too evidently, had been recovered from some ash heap.

One more case: A boy nearly fourteen, found working in an establishment in violation of child labor law, is brought in for truancy. There had been deception to the employer as to the boy's age. Here is the story: The father, about forty years of age, had been sick for nearly a year from disease contracted in his work, helpless, bed-ridden nearly all the time, no hope of recovery. He had been a prudent and skilled workman, a good father. The mother, educated and refined, a good mother. Four children. The oldest was the boy. The other three children were in school. This boy was practically the sole support of the family, with the exception of some sewing and laundry work which the mother could get to do at home. Yes, there had been deception on the part of this mother as to her boy's age. Does any one wish to judge her? How commonplace, how familiar these stories are! Why every one of us knows of these cases! Well, now, let us enforce the law. We believe in the law and we believe in its enforcement. We will go back to the first case. The court will say to the mother, "Your boy must go to school." "But what will become of my family? I have got to go out to work to earn our living and John is the only one whom I can leave with the babies." The court: "The boy must complete his education as the law requires. It is unfortunate, but since you will not send him to school, I must send him away." And so, John for the crime of having lost his father and of trying to be the little father in his place is duly committed to the truancy school, or, if there is no truancy school in that locality, is committed, perhaps, to some institution in a different locality. Then the court having so far done its duty turns to the mother and says: "You have refused to obey the law. You must be taught to respect it, so that you will not take your other children out of school to take care of the babies at home while you are out earning their living. You are fined \$5." "But, Judge, I haven't got \$5 in the world." "Then you will have to serve five days in the county jail, or workhouse or penitentiary, as the case

may be." "But what will become of my children in the meantime?" "Oh, you need not worry about them, I will send for them at once and commit them to a proper institution, where they will be well taken care of and receive a good education. Thus, your children will no longer be a burden to you."

Does any one suppose that that mother would be taken out of that court that day grateful to the law and to the court? Would it be any wonder if under such a state of facts those children grew up enemies of society, haters of the law, anarchists at heart and, perhaps, in fact? Is there any one who is bold enough to say, this is good? This is as it should be? Even assuming, if you will, that the children were fortunate enough to be sent to the best institutions in the state and each received a good education, still, is there any one who will say that it was right and proper that this family life should be broken, these ties of blood so severed?

But someone will say, "Are there not poor relief funds and charitable societies for just such cases?" As delicately as possible, I intimated something of this kind to the mother in the first case. I shall never forget her indignation. She said. "I will have you know that I was brought up in a respectable manner. My father always earned a good living and we had a nice home. We are not paupers. I would starve before I would be or let my children be charity subjects." No, these cases cannot be treated as charity cases, nor should they be. The law says these children must be educated, and therefore, they are entitled to receive that education as a matter of strict legal right.

Now let us suppose that the court could say to this mother, "Madam, we have made these laws not only for the benefit of your children, but to just as great degree for the benefit of ourselves. We recognize the fact that if your children receive a good common school education and are brought up sound in mind and body, they will be, when they grow up, worth thousands of dollars more to us than they would be otherwise; and that, if on the other hand your children grow up in ignorance and are obliged to go to work in store or factory when little children and consequently grow up weak and sickly, then they are likely to be a burden to us all their lives.

"Besides, for the best welfare of us all, we want them to grow up good and useful citizens. The only way to accomplish that is to let them grow up sound and healthy and give them a good education. But we are not so inhuman as to say that your children

must go to school and must not work, and yet, provide no means whereby this can be accomplished, except by breaking up your family and destroying your home. We know that you are the natural and best guardian for your children and that their chance in life is far better if they are brought up under your mother's love and care and in the family home as brothers and sisters should be. It is for these reasons we have provided for your children free schools, free text-books and free educational funds.

"Now, you send John back to school and keep him there while he is of school age, and the State Educational Department through its proper officers or local boards will pay you such a sum per week as will be found necessary with what you can earn, to support your family and preserve your home while your children are of school age. If it is found that you are not keeping the children in school, that you are wasting the money, or without good cause not trying to earn anything yourself, then the children will be taken from you and placed in proper institutions."

For many years we have recognized our duty to the aged and infirm dependent. No matter how horribly incapable our performance of this duty oftentimes may have been, we have never questioned the duty. Is it not time that we equally recognize our duty to our dependent and destitute children? Just as long as we, the state, say to the dependent and destitute child, you cannot earn your living in store or factory, but you must go to school; just so long we must provide in some manner for that child proper support and maintenance, no matter where in the state that child may be, whether in home or in institution. This must be done not as a matter of charity, but as that child's absolute legal right; and whenever possible and proper, the family life should be preserved.

Why, then, let me ask in conclusion, should any dependent and destitute child of compulsory school age in our state be dependent in whole or in part upon private charity; and, so dependent for its education, its health, its very life perhaps upon business conditions from day to day, or the state of the stock market?

THE CHAIRMAN: The suggestion made by Judge Shove, if not revolutionary, is certainly new and striking. It touches a fundamental fact in our policy toward the poor and we are fortunate in having received the consent of Professor Fetter of Cornell University to open discussion on this valuable paper.

PROF. FRANK A. FETTER: I suppose that being a quasi-philosopher, that I am selected to represent at this discussion the

abstract theorist who arrives at the truth of his study in the clear light of reason, and not in the murky atmosphere of facts.

We rarely appreciate the logical consequence of new social legislation, and not one of us could foresee what the child labor legislation and compulsory school law would lead us to; and we see the full consequences of it before us this morning. We say to the child, "You shall not work for your own living. You shall not work to support the other members of your family." And then when the regular bread-winner of the family dies, or deserts, or is a victim of accident, the family faces the problem of life.

As they are in the presence of starvation and of suffering, what shall they do? Then it is men like Judge Shove, who are on the firing line of this industrial conflict, who are daily grappling with the facts, who come to us, philosophers as we are in our studies and our special work, engaged in furthering these measures of legislation, and they say to us: "Face the facts."

Now, we may leave this family and let it suffer as Judge Shove has just described. But this defeats the whole purpose of the compulsory education law and the child labor law, which were enacted in order to redeem the family. We simply have not accomplished what we started to do. Or, we may take the other horn of the dilemma, and say that private charity is adequate — and perhaps in some districts it is; and I am sure I can appreciate all of the objections Judge Shove has selected on this point. But in most places the community has not developed all the different phases of these private agencies. That is in agreement with the paper.

Let me speak a few words upon certain conclusions and consequences not touched upon in Judge Shove's paper. Duty and responsibility must always go together. Any system based upon any other scheme and division of duty and responsibility, must break of its own weight sooner or later. Now, our society is based on a supposed or normal self-supporting lot of individuals and families. We can allow a large measure of liberty to the man who can take care of himself. We can let him choose his own calling and marry whom and when and how he pleases, and raise any kind of a family, so long as he has the consequences. But when the state takes that burden upon the state's shoulders, then the state must take the power of control, and it must limit liberty as it has not been limited before.

The beneficiary of socialism must pay the price of socialism,

which is the sacrifice of liberty. It is that personal liberty and government by authority which is of the essence of the socialist's régime. Now, we have our socialism here and the injecting of this responsibility or support by the state involves an efficiency in the administration of this relief far greater than we have obtained in our general administration of charities. It involves a control of liberty and of marriage of individuals, and of the lives of those so benefited; and in the control of those left behind by a deserting husband.

Here is the problem: The assumption by the state of the responsibility and the injecting of the thorough and efficient administration of that system in accordance with its spirit, here are the problems which will tax our wisdom to the utmost, and all social students who have watched the trend of things in later years, must see that Judge Shove has put his finger on a problem and pointed out the right direction within which development must go.

THE CHAIRMAN: We now have a few minutes for general discussion of the matters presented in the report and the papers. The report has taken a wide range, as you know, and we have covered, I think, almost all of the important phases of the work for children, with the possible exception of the after-care of children who have been in institutions; and I shall take the liberty of asking Brother Barnabas of St. Philip's Home, to make a few remarks before announcing the general discussion.

(It was announced by a speaker on the floor that Brother Barnabas was obliged to take a train for Syracuse a short time before being called on.)

THE CHAIRMAN: In that case, the meeting is open for general discussion, and speakers will be limited to five minutes under the rule. They are requested to announce their names as they rise.

FREDERIC ALMY: I wish to say a word on the point raised by Judge Shove on the need of relief in families where children must go to school, and so cannot go out to work. Of course this need for relief is very clear. We need it in many cities. In many cities they have organized child pensions, or what are sometimes called "school pensions," or private support where a child works. But now comes the question of whether this should be public or private charity.

If it is considered, then comes up the old question of public or private outdoor relief, which has been thrashed out in the national and state conferences, and as a result of all that discussion, and talk, the public outdoor relief has been discarded. We find public relief in institutions, leaving the home relief to private charity, which is more flexible and more personal. I believe that the public relief which is what it should be, would not be so well given out by a public officer without volunteer assistance, but it should be given out with loving friendship, as we find in private charity. It should be so given that there would be less loss of self-respect and less publicity. That is all on that point.

On the first paper of the day I want to say a word on the subject of suppression rather than depression, which has been spoken of at several sessions of this Conference. We saw yesterday in the reformatory here the model reformatory, the model one of the world. I hope many will go and see it, as it is a model type of suppression. Elmira is of the military type of discipline, that checks and represses. The George Junior Republic changes the method and brings out the good by natural free play, no routine or discipline, but with all the power to the boys of a full and free choice, and the responsibility imposed upon them by a jury of their peers, and it is believed in that way, character is better developed.

JOHN MEMPOLDER (chief probation officers of Yonkers): With reference to Judge Shove's ideas which he has presented, I want to say that during my few years' experience as probation officer, and with coming into practical contact with this question day by day, I have yet to find a family that has been broken up because of the enforcement of the compulsory education law or the child labor law.

In the city of Yonkers, these laws are comparatively well enforced. Two weeks ago I had a Syrian boy placed on probation with me who had been several months in the country and he could not speak the English language. His father was supposed to be dead. I understand that the father may now be living in Syria. His mother had kept the boy at home to take care of a two-year old child while she went out peddling.

The judge said that I should take charge of this case and see what could be done and determine as to whether the boy should go to school, or whether I should enforce the law or evade the law. I went to the home of the boy and talked to the mother through an

interpreter, and I asked if she would not have the baby brought to the nursery, the Catholic nursery of the city; I told her that she could leave the child there from six o'clock in the morning until six o'clock at night, and that the boy could then go to school, as he would not have to tend the baby. She said the boy had no shoes. I saw that he was provided with shoes, and then she promised to take the baby to the nursery each day. The week after, I found that the child had not been taken to the nursery at all, but that the boy had been in school and that some Syrian friends were taking care of the baby. I think, as Judge Shove has presented the case, he has omitted a few factors, and one of these is the helpful neighbor or friend, and the private agencies, which are ready and willing to render private help.

Besides that, there is the method of making personal appeals, presenting the case to some individual, able to help, and help will be forthcoming, and I think that is the way to continue handling that problem.

DR. McMAHON: So many subjects present themselves to me on hearing your report, and the papers presented, that I do not know what to say in the few minutes given to me, Mr. Chairman. But I do say in regard to Brother Barnabas, that an exhibition of his work can be seen in the basement. His work is the work of the Immaculate Virgin. His work is to take care of the boys from the New York Protectory, who come without friends, and he finds a place or situation for them in the city, and then boards forty to fifty of them and trains them to proper home life and social habits, guarding them so that they can mix with those around them; and when the boy has gained salary enough to board out, the brother finds a place where he can be placed with others, and lead the natural life of a boy or a young man. This is the work not only of St. Philip's Home, which takes about 100 boys a year, but also the mission of the Immaculate Virgin, which takes about 200 a year. The other work is taking them when they leave institutions and getting them homes, or to their relatives. The need for this work has been forced upon me by the constant attendance at the Children's Court, and finding so many who came there who had been in institutions. And every child, every month, from each institution under my direction, comes to me and is taken care of in that way. Before the child is placed even in its parents' home an institutional visit is made. Then we follow that in a few weeks to see the parent and the child, and to see that there is still supervision of it.

One question, Mr. Chairman, I would like to ask is, What do you mean by the central bureau where all accounts should be sent?

THE CHAIRMAN: I do not know as I suggested the reports of visits to the homes of children, the statistics that would of course include financial statements and the annual reports, as accounts.

The institutions are now called upon to close the year on the thirtieth of September and again on the fifteenth of October and again on the first of January. If the year could be made to coincide all around, and the data sent to a central bureau where public officials would apply for information, it would result in great saving of time and expense.

FATHER McMAHON: On the question of child labor and compulsory education law, I do not like to be considered as a reformer or a reactionist, but when this law was in a state of progressing, it was my duty to fight every step of it with regard to that drastic measure that no child under fourteen years of age should be permitted to work. What is the object of our education? It is to improve the mind, to give brightness to the intellect to store facts in the mind and the memory. But it is also to build up character in the child, and to make that child one that can look forward and go on its way for life's actions. And we all know, despite the fact set forth about Yonkers, which is a little village outside of New York City, where all the rich people go, that in the city of New York we have a large number of people who are in some measure dependent upon the wages of their children, from one cause or another, as already recited. What I said then was that this was a drastic measure, and that as all laws should be constructive — giving a little here and a little dispensation there, for the laws when there are strong and substantial reasons for doing so. Let some judge be appointed who in a particular case brought before him will permit such a child to go and do the work. The child may miss some book learning by that, but it will be stronger in character because of the responsibility put upon it, than if the family is helped by some private charity.

MR. HOWARD (of Buffalo): The purpose of the compulsory education law and the child labor law is not only to insure the education of the child's mind, but also to insure the protection of the child's body, its future welfare and the welfare of the state. A child's character developed at the expense of the body is really nothing to that child and his family and the state. There are

some exceptions made in favor of families where there is poverty. If children work under fourteen, physical efficiency is undermined. It is a very short-sighted policy which will rob children's minds of training, or which allows their bodies to go under-nourished; and if these children have families for which they struggle now, they in return will require relief in future years for themselves. I want to make a point in regard to Judge Shove's paper, and the probation officer from Yonkers. Families in Yonkers and in Buffalo, and I very much presume, families in Syracuse, are not broken up in such manner as Judge Shove indicated, because of the child labor law and the compulsory education law. They are given pensions by charitable societies in all these cases. But the question is not whether this charity, as Mr. Almy calls it, shall be given by the state or public relief or private relief. The point is whether it shall be charity, or whether justice and right. It should be considered as justice and right, and not as charity. Public outdoor relief is given the people who reach a condition of poverty through no failure of the state, but these laws bring it to families not because of their own failure, but because of the laws of the state which make them fail; and if the state makes these laws, it is obliged to provide what is necessary in that family for its subsistence. So, it is not a matter of private or public charity, but one of justice, and not charity at all.

DR. BOCK (of Rochester): I pity any man who does not believe in the principles back of Judge Shove's paper, but I plead the greater duty of the state in caring for all children, and not only the destitute from the day they are born, and not from the time that they come to school, but from the day they are born, if not before they are born. That is so because thousands of mothers are unprepared for motherhood. I believe in medical supervision of all children, from the day they are born, and I think the first thing we should deal with is the mental, physical, moral and social help which we can render to the child. In Rochester we have tried to inculcate the first principle of supervision of the child from the day of birth. The great question is to save the child. Dr. Peterson in his first paper of the convention impressed upon you all the necessity to save the child, rather than the inebriates. Dr. Lewis did not tell you to cure the blindness, but to prevent this blindness in the child; and he even wants you to go further back and ensure the sexual cleanliness of the parents, so as to prevent disease.

We should keep the individual well nourished. The germ of disease lies dormant waiting for a time when the individual is down, and then it gets in its work. Every month in this state, 300 children die from tuberculosis. You must prevent that and the only way to prevent it is to go back to the time when the child is born and watch and supervise it and prevent the conditions coming up around it, which make it possible for that child to become sick.

THE CHAIRMAN: I am directed by the president to say that the morning session must be closed in two minutes. Those two minutes will be given to Mr. Weeden, of Albany.

MR. WEEDEN: I got the idea from Judge Shove that it might be a possibility that this help given to these families might be administered, not by the Department of Charities, but by the Department of Education. In that way, the stigma of poverty and charity would be naturally and entirely removed.

THE CHAIRMAN: The Conference adjourns the forenoon session to meet again the opening of the afternoon session at 2.30 P. M.

AFTERNOON SESSION, NOVEMBER 19, 1908.

PROGRAM.

- 2:30 P. M. Business.
- 3:00 P. M. Report of the Committee on State Institutions, by James Wood, Chairman, president of Board of Managers, Bedford Reformatory for Women, Bedford, N. Y.
- 3:20 P. M. Divided Management in State Institutions, by Joseph P. Byers, superintendent House of Refuge, Randall's Island, New York City.
- 3:40 P. M. Discussion. Opened by Homer Folks, secretary State Charities Aid Association, New York City.
- 3:50 P. M. General discussion.
- 4:10 P. M. Voluntary Patients in State Hospitals for the Insane, by Dr. Albert Warren Ferris, president State Commission in Lunacy, Albany, N. Y.
- 4:30 P. M. Discussion. Opened by Dr. Richard H. Hutchings.
- 4:40 P. M. General discussion.

PRESIDENT ROSENDALE: The Conference will please be in order.

Is there any business to propose? If not, we will proceed with the report of the Committee on State Institutions. The meeting will be in charge of the Committee chairman, James Wood, who is known to all of you as the efficient president of the Board of Managers of the Bedford Reformatory for Women.

I have great pleasure in introducing Mr. Wood.

JAMES WOOD: Report of the Committee on State Institutions, New York State Conference of Charities and Correction, Elmira, N. Y., November 17-19, 1908.

New York has thirty-five state institutions in which she cares for 43,049 of her delinquent and dependent people. These institutions have cost the state about \$25,000,000, and are maintained at an annual expenditure of \$7,190,000. These figures at once show the vast importance of this department of the state's interests and indicate that the most careful and intelligent management of these institutions is required by every consideration of humanity on the one side and of economy on the other.

The state institutions are divided into three main classes, hospitals for the insane; prisons and charitable institutions. The charitable institutions are divided into four main groups,—the delinquent, defective, hospital and dependent. The delinquent group is subdivided into reformatories and training schools; the defective group into custodial institutions, schools for the feeble-minded and blind, and a colony for epileptics; the hospital group into institutions for tuberculosis and for crippled children, and the dependent into homes for veterans and members of their families, and a school for orphan Indian children. The great variety of these institutions emphasizes the necessity for a comprehensive as well as an intelligent system for their management.

HOSPITALS FOR THE INSANE.

The hospitals for the insane are under charge of a salaried commission of three members, the president of which must be a physician and one of the other members must be a lawyer. There are thirteen of these institutions, each of which has a board of managers of seven members, two of whom are women. There are in addition two hospitals for insane criminals, one at Matteawan, and one at Dannemora, which are under the control of the Commission of Prisons, but medically and in some other respects under the care and direction of the Commission in Lunacy. In these hospitals, including those for the insane criminals, there were

October 1, 1908, 29,471 patients; 14,265 men and 15,206 women. On September 30, there were 696 inmates at Matteawan and 318 at Dannemora. In addition to the state hospitals there are twenty-two licensed private hospitals for the insane over whose management the Commission in Lunacy has supervision and control. The number of patients in these licensed private houses was 1,034 on October 1. The state appropriated last year for the maintenance of its insane \$4,843,036. It also made special appropriations amounting to \$1,102,443, and reappropriated sundry unexpended balances.

The last Legislature made several important enactments affecting the hospitals for the insane. The state was authorized to sign a fifty-year lease of Ward's Island to New York City for the purpose of the Manhattan State Hospital during this term. The insanity law was amended to facilitate the apprehension of dangerous cases, magistrates being directed to issue warrants in special instances in New York and Kings county. An amendment to the law was made extending the time during which patients may be out upon parole from thirty days to six months at the discretion of the superintendent. Another amendment provided for the admission of voluntary patients into the state hospitals under certain restrictions. This latter provision will be discussed in a special paper at this Conference. The Legislature of 1907 has provided funds to be expended in securing a site for a new hospital to be located near New York City. In obedience to this direction, the commission selected a suitable site in Rockland county within twenty-seven miles of New York City. Unfortunately, the state Senate failed to pass a bill authorizing the purchase of this site, and it, therefore, did not become a law. This action of the Legislature was regrettable for it caused postponement of another year of the erection of a hospital in the section where the need is great and constantly pressing and where the overcrowding is at its worst. The commission has been authorized to remodel the Long Island State Hospital at Flatbush at a cost of \$450,000. No material increase of the present capacity of the institution (655) would have been provided by this remodeling. The commission, therefore, sought a site for this hospital in the country, upon which the amount mentioned should be spent instead of sinking it in the old building. The former Rifle Range at Creedmore was secured and plans were drawn for the erection on this new site of a hospital to shelter the insane of Kings and Queens counties.

The excess of patients over certified capacity October 1, 1907, was 1,876. During the fiscal year accommodations were provided as follows to meet this deficiency and to provide for an expected net annual increase of 750 patients:

Chronic Buildings, Binghamton and Middletown.....	1,170
Acute Building, Hudson River.....	100
Acute Building, Binghamton.....	100
Nurses' Home, Utica; releasing rooms for.....	80
Willard, Button House enlargement.....	25
Chronic Building, Hudson River.....	440
Dormitory made of old Amusement Hall, Hudson River,	50
Three pavilions, Manhattan.....	90
Total	<u>2,055</u>

In addition to the buildings named, there are under construction at the present time the following:

Utica, Acute Building.....	80
Willard, Tuberculosis Building.....	35
Binghamton, Nurses' Home and new dormitory, releasing	150
Middletown, Nurses' Home, releasing.....	50
Buffalo, Tuberculosis Building.....	20
Hudson River, addition in Chronic Building, for nurses, releasing	24
Utica, remodelling one ward.....	25
Middletown, Staff Quarters vacated.....	10
Central Islip, Tuberculosis Hospital.....	<u>100</u>

Appropriations have been made and plans have been drawn for the following:

Middletown, Acute Building.....	100
Central Islip, Nurses' Home.....	200
Gowanda, Tuberculosis Building.....	<u>45</u>

When the additional accommodations named have been added to those we already have, and subtracted from the estimated total population on October 1, 1909, we will face a deficiency on that date

of 1,753 beds; for a net increase of over 1,200 must be anticipated for next year as it was reached this past year. By far the greatest crowding exists in the metropolitan districts, and from New York City the largest and most continuous stream of insane patients proceeds. On October 1, 1908, the number of patients in the Manhattan, Kings Park, Central Islip and Long Island State Hospitals was 12,062. The capacity of these hospitals on the 1st of October was 10,985, leaving a total deficiency in this small area of 1,077. The crying need, therefore, exists in New York City. Were it not for the transfers of insane patients from New York City, none of the other hospitals in the state would be filled, with the exception, perhaps, of Utica and Buffalo. Over 1,900 from New York are now quartered in various parts of the state, in different hospitals. This arrangement prevents friends from visiting the patients, and thus shuts off from the physicians an opportunity to secure a full history of the disease, so essential in each case. It also tends to depress the patients and assists in fixing the delusion, that they are being treated as criminals in spite of the fact that they have committed no crime. Moreover, it renders the duty of the after care committees extremely difficult since it is not easy to interest employers in patients so far removed from the residence of those who know them. In several hospitals, committees for the after care of the insane were established in 1906. The object is to have a general oversight of persons discharged as recovered, and to find them employment when necessary, and to prevent them from falling into bad habits, especially where such habits formerly prevailed. The work has been carried on with marked success.

STATE PRISONS.

The state prisons are under the charge of the superintendent of state prisons, a salaried officer appointed by the governor, with the advice and consent of the Senate. He has general supervision of the state prisons and hospitals for insane criminals and insane convicts, and the convicts therein — the discipline, police, contracts and penal concerns thereof.

The State Commission of Prisons, consisting of seven members appointed by the governor, are charged with duties of visitation and inspection of state prisons, and all other penal institutions of the state. Their compensation is limited to \$10 a day, when actually engaged.

There are three state prisons: At Sing Sing Prison, there are 1,469 prisoners; at Auburn Prison, 1,266, including 94 women; at Clinton Prison, 1,281 prisoners, making a total of 4,110. During the five years preceding 1907, there has been a variation of less than 100 in the population of the prisons each year, and the total increase in ten years was only 249, a much smaller percentage of increase than there has been in the population in the state. The cost of maintenance for the year 1907 was \$495, 108.92.

The prisoners in the state prisons are employed in the manufacture of articles used by the state and its institutions and political divisions. The prison industries are organized and carried on as nearly as possible on the same lines as our factories employing free labor; the prime objective of the industrial department being the fitting of the prisoners to maintain themselves on honest employment on their release. The products of the industries last year aggregated \$872,000 in value. The last Legislature authorized the establishment of a state farm for women misdemeanants and appropriated \$100,000 therefor, and a commission was appointed to select a site for the same. Provision was made for preliminary work for the new prison at Bear Mountain-on-the-Hudson, to take the place of Sing Sing Prison. The sanitary condition of the latter is such that it is hoped that the new prison may be completed at the earliest possible date. The new legislation under consideration includes the proposition for the state to take over the county penitentiaries, or the charge of all violators of state laws; and the establishment near the city of New York, of a reformatory for young men misdemeanants.

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.

The charitable institutions are under the supervision of the State Board of Charities, composed of members appointed from the judicial districts of the state. The members of this board receive a *per diem* compensation of \$10 while in the performance of their duties, but their individual compensation cannot exceed \$500 a year and their expenses.

The expenditures of the charitable institutions are under the control of the fiscal supervisor, who is a salaried officer appointed by the governor. The erection of buildings is under the approval of the building commission. The making of plans for new buildings and the alteration of old ones, and the authorization of pay-

ments therefor from special appropriations, are in charge of the state architect; the Civil Service Commission determines who the officers shall be, and the Salaries Classification Commission determines what shall be their salaries, and the salaries of their employees. The little authority that remains is invested in boards of managers, consisting of seven members, who receive no compensation. The work of some institutions is officially inspected by the State Board of Charities, the State Charities Aid Association, the Prison Commission, the New York Prison Association, the Women's Prison Association, three sets of inspectors from the fiscal supervisor's department, and the different branches of the state architect's office, all of whom are authorized by law to make inspections and recommendations; the recommendations from these promiscuous inspectors are wonderfully varied and are often diametrically opposed. They bring dismay to new members of boards of managers, while those with more experience regard many of them with quiet amusement. The mere recital of the foregoing list is a sufficient indication of the absurdity of the situation. The time of officers taken by giving proper attention to these inspectors, is a very serious matter. The divided authority in the management of these institutions in such an anomalous feature that it is the subject of a special paper at this Conference.

The general situation is further complicated by the fact that different institutions have a very different legal status. The assistant secretary of the State Charities Aid Association, in an admirable paper read at last year's Conference, asked if it is required to have a physician on the boards of reformatories, why are they not required for institutions for the feeble-minded and epileptic; if women are desirable on the boards of reformatories, why are they not required for other institutions where both sexes are admitted, and is it proper for the law to require that managers of certain institutions should be selected from certain private organizations, such as the Grand Army of the Republic? Why are subordinate officers and employees of some institutions appointed by the board of managers, while in others they are appointed by the superintendent, and in two it is not specified by the law where the appointing power lies. Some institutions report directly to the Legislature, other to the State Board of Charities, while in connection with five, nothing is said in the law about reports. The committee suggests that the time has fully come for a thorough, scientific and practical revision of the charities law, and a con-

solidation of many separate statutes. The requirements of new institutions will now make some amendments to the law necessary, and it is a proper matter for this Conference to consider, whether it will now recommend the revision proposed.

The past year has shown an increase in the number of inmates in all state institutions, making necessary the erection of new buildings for their accommodation. Many of the institutions are now so overcrowded as seriously to interfere with their doing their best work. The reformatory group, consisting of five institutions, has 2,129 inmates; the defective group has four institutions with 2,235 inmates, including the school for orphan Indian children, and the epileptic colony has 1,217 inmates, making a total of 8,432.

For their maintenance the sum of \$1,761,000 was appropriated by the last Legislature, together with \$547,450 in special appropriations. Special appropriations amounting to \$1,263,048 have been asked for the coming year. The last Legislature appropriated \$188,575 for the purchase of a site for an Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum, for which a site of 1,270 acres in Rockland county has been selected. An appropriation of \$125,000 was made for the purchase of a site for a training school for boys, to take the place of the House of Refuge on Randall's Island. We are informed that this site has been selected in Yorktown, Westchester county. It is gratifying to know that the boys from Greater New York may soon have similar advantages to those enjoyed at Industry and which Randall's Island could never afford.

An act was passed by the last Legislature making the number of members of the boards of managers of all charitable institutions uniformly seven. A special bill was also passed relative to the placing out of infants at the Hudson Training School in private families. A law was enacted requiring boards of managers to examine and pass upon worn-out articles that had no further value. This places a matter of detail of a low order upon men and women who would not do this in their own business, and who should not be required by the state to act for it in matters of this character. The same law requires inventories to be made which involve endless details and an immense amount of labor, and which should be generalized in many ways. It seems unfortunate that the important department of the fiscal supervisor should have to make requirements that invariably tend to place managers and officers in a chronic state of dissatisfaction.

It is very desirable to have further legislation authorizing reformatories to have supervision of parole and discharged inmates for a longer period after they leave the institutions. The training schools might have such authority until the age of twenty-one is reached, while the reformatories should care for their wards for at least a year after their release. The critical character of this period makes such a provision advisable.

It is also desirable to have some official connection established between the state institutions having lands and the state agricultural experiment station, by which an expert supervision of the management of the farms may be exercised so that greater returns may be obtained, while the work might become an object lesson for the neighborhoods. Something of this nature has been in operation the past year at the agricultural and industrial school at Industry by the holding of farmers' institutes as a part of the instruction to inmates.

The important work in all state institutions other than those that are purely custodial or for the insane is necessarily educational. The most of the delinquents have become such because of deficient educational advantages. The forces of heredity have seriously handicapped many, and their environment has often stimulated and developed these evil tendencies, or has been the means of leading those untainted by heredity from the paths of honesty and virtue. The duty and welfare of the state requires that these shall receive the careful training of all their faculties, that they may be developed into normal proportions and conditions.

Educational work is necessarily expensive, especially so in industrial training. Yet, industrial training is always beneficial and often more important than any other. The state has poorly met its obligations to its delinquents if it turns them adrift, after keeping them for years from active employments, in their several communities, unprepared to find remunerative employment in established industries suited to their capabilities and insuring them a respectable livelihood. State officials having charge of expenditures are often wanting in a proper appreciation of the importance of this department of work.

New York has been exceptionally generous in the care of her delinquent and defective people. The expenditures for their care and maintenance have been very large, while the labor bestowed in the cause by her philanthropic citizens has been almost without limit. The state has benefited in this by the mental, moral and

religious educational training that has been given to both delinquents and defectives, resulting in a good measure of prevention of crime and preparation of its recipients for good citizenship.

ROBERT W. HEBBERD: If there is no objection, I will make the following motion:

Resolved, That the committee on resolutions be requested to consider the report of this committee for the purpose of recommending such action, if any, which should be taken with respect to the suggestions of the committee.

(Motion was duly seconded.)

THE CHAIRMAN: You have heard the motion, which is duly seconded. In regular course, it will go to the committee on resolutions if adopted. All in favor will say aye, contrary minded, no. The resolution is adopted, and is referred to the committee on resolutions.

Is Mr. Byers present? I am informed that he has been attending a conference at Richmond, Va., and it appears he has not yet arrived at Elmira. His paper will be read by Secretary Howard.

JOHN R. HOWARD: Such is the title given me by the chairman of the committee for this paper, Divided Authority in the Management of State Institutions.

As a fundamental proposition, it is safe to state that "divided authority" and "successful management" are not compatible terms. They are antagonistic to each other.

Authority is defined as the "power exercised by a person by virtue of his office." This power is derived from some superior body and is accountable to it in the exercise of the authority thus conferred. The people, the sovereign power of the state, have provided for the establishment and maintenance of the state institutions, and for their government. They have delegated to the government the power to appoint boards of trustees and managers, whose duties they have defined by law. For the faithful performance of these duties, which are, broadly, the general charge and oversight of their respective institutions, these boards are directly responsible to the appointing power, the governor of the state. He is held to account for the character and ability of his appointees, and should have the authority, under proper safeguards, to remove any of them who may be found, after appointment, unqualified or disqualified for the discharge of the duties

imposed upon them by law. One of the most important duties of these boards is the appointment of a superintendent, who is placed, or should be, in full control, subject only to the direction of the board, and the limitations placed upon him by legislation. A superintendent is directly responsible to his board, the board to the governor, and the governor to the people.

In the institution the superintendent must be supreme. He is the responsible head and if he is to be held accountable, his authority must extend through all its various departments. His subordinates must not owe their appointment or continuance in service to the favor of board members or to social, political or religious influences. Efficiency and faithful performance of duty are the sole requisites, and of these the superintendent should be the final judge. He is the executive officer of the board and their policies and rules must be enforced through him. For a board to attempt to direct affairs through subordinate officers is as unsafe and unwise as it would be for the governor of the state to usurp the powers and functions of the board and to direct the conduct of the institution through the superintendent.

In both cases there would ensue a division of authority and responsibility that in the end could produce only discord, friction and unrest, and make successful administration impossible. The responsibilities of a superintendent are manifold. He is the immediate custodian of the state's wards, who are committed to the institution for temporary or permanent detention, for the purpose of mere custodial care, medical treatment, education or reformation. They may require one or all of these things and the superintendent must be able to direct the agencies employed to reach the results desired. He is responsible for the well being of those placed in his charge, until they are finally discharged by due process.

The size of our institutions, with few exceptions, precludes the possibility of superintendents becoming as familiar with the individual inmate as is desirable. With the possible exception of the merely custodial class, there is no doubt but that far better results could be obtained with a smaller population to deal with. The superintendent who knows his inmates best is best qualified to deal with their needs. But he must know, too, his officers, for much of his authority is necessarily delegated to them, and he thereby becomes at least morally responsible for their acts. Delegated authority does not necessarily mean a divided responsibility.

It would be difficult to lay down and define all of the duties and responsibilities of a superintendent. Except where legislation has modified or removed them, they include, in addition to those already named, general oversight of the moral, mental and physical welfare of inmates, their discipline, and the appointment and discipline of officers, care of the state's property, the dietary, purchases and use of all supplies, sanitary conditions, supervision of repairs, and alterations of buildings, all institution correspondence, the finances, and others too numerous to mention. A superintendent who cannot safely work twenty hours a day will, if he is wise, for his health's sake be just as lazy as he dare be.

The state of New York has, by legislation, greatly modified certain of the duties I have named, shifting the responsibility to bureaus or officials especially provided for the purpose. The general effect of these changes has been, I believe, to lessen the superintendent's responsibility without weakening his authority, and to increase the sum total of his work.

Through the establishment of the Civil Service Commission the first selection of employees and officers was taken over by the commission, which undertakes to pass upon the capabilities of applicants for appointment by a series of examinations that determines their mental, physical and moral fitness to satisfactorily discharge the duties of the position they seek. In filling vacancies in any of the classified positions, comprising practically all of the important posts, superintendents are restricted to those who are certified by the commission as having been duly qualified. The restraint imposed upon institution management by the civil service law through the limitation of their authority to select officers on their own initiative and to recognize faithful and efficient service by promoting without examination are apparently unavoidable for carrying out the objects of the law. If the correction of abuses existing before the organization of the commission demanded the imposition of these restraints, the price paid was not too great. Institutions are not built for superintendents or boards or for parties. They were never designed as a vehicle for the discharge of personal or political or other obligations. When they become so, they cease to serve their highest and best purposes. Without a wisely and efficiently administered civil service they were so used, as witnessed their history in this and other states.

We now hear little of the prostitution of our institutions for partisan political purposes, where formerly they were the com-

mon prey of both parties. The protection the civil service affords the institutions, even though the system may deprive those in actual control of a free hand in the selection of subordinates and their assignment in the institutions, is of vital importance. The red-tape methods involved are inevitable, though probably at times vexing. I take it the duty of fixing the standard of service rightly belongs to the institution and the responsibility for meeting that standard to the commission. Certainly in many cases it has been a positive relief to superintendents to be able to secure their officers through the commission instead of seeking out and interviewing a lot of applicants.

It sometimes may appear to those in authority that civil service appointees are more difficult to get rid of than others. Granting that no removal should be made except for cause, this should not be so. What may or may not be a "just cause" must finally rest with the commission, but it should be recognized that harmony is a vital essential to successful administration. A superintendent permanently out of harmony with his board and their policies cannot do effective work and ought to resign. The same is true as between officers and the superintendent. Dissatisfaction of officers with their work should be the signal for their retirement and "out of harmony with the administration" should be a sufficient cause for removal.

New York's system of control of her institutions is somewhat complicated. No inconsiderable part of a superintendent's time is taken up with adjusting the work of his institution to meet the requirements of the various commissions and bureaus having jurisdiction over one or all of its departments. The institutions of the state are divided into three groups, the five prisons constituting one, the thirteen hospitals for the insane another, and the seventeen charitable institutions the third. The latter group includes the several reformatories and women's prisons. The state prisons are subject to the authority of the superintendent of prisons; the supervision of the Prison Commission; the regulations of the Civil Service Commission; the state architect's department in the expenditure of special appropriations for building, repairs and improvement; the State Board of Classification in the fixing of prices for prison-made products, the purchase of which by all state institutions is compulsory by law; the state comptroller as to all expenditures; and possibly others.

The insane hospitals are likewise subject to the Commission in

Lunacy, the Civil Service Commission, state architect, Board of Classification, the state comptroller, and possibly others.

In the superintendent of prisons and Lunacy Commission, there is a marked centralization of authority, due largely to their control of appointment of superintendents and wardens and the finances. Each of them has the very great advantage of dealing only with a single class of institutions. The so-called charitable institutions are certainly not worse off in the matter of supervision and regulation than the other two groups.

They present, however, a much more complex problem due to their dissimilar character. Like the others, they are subject to the Civil Service Commission, the State Board of Classification, the state architect and the state comptroller. They have also over them the department of the state fiscal supervisor, which controls absolutely all current expenditures and, conjointly with the state architect, all special funds. They have further the Salary Classification Commission to fix all salaries; the State Board of Charities, with constitutional authority to visit and inspect; and possibly others.

For any of our institutions to do their work efficiently, it is necessary that the functions of all the different bodies be clearly defined and understood and that they then should work harmoniously together. This requires nice adjustment. The system is a complicated piece of machinery, every part of which has its place and use. In order that it shall run at all, it is essential that there be a mutual understanding between institution heads and these numerous departments concerning their several duties and responsibilities.

Without such an understanding we will have friction, evasion of responsibility, charge and countercharge and more or less general demoralization. This suggests that if we are to have any new commission, which this paper does not recommend, it might not be unwise to provide one for the adjustment of the system.

Finally; it is the business of a superintendent to use to the best advantage the facilities given him. Lack of facilities may mean the failure of the institution to properly present its needs; or it may mean the failure of a department to fully appreciate their necessity. If the former, the responsibility is with the institution. But when the needs have been clearly shown, to provide for them is the business of the proper department; the failure to do so must place the entire responsibility on the department.

Among the charitable institutions there might arise, possibly, a misconception of their duty, in putting their requirements before the Department of the Fiscal Supervisor. It need only be remembered that the financial authority conferred by law on this department gives it practically the direction of all the work of the institutions coming under its jurisdiction. The supervisor may determine the number of officers, order the dietary of inmates and officers, regulate the quantities and cost of all supplies, including clothing, fuel, household stores, shop equipment, and so through the entire list. The department that does all of these things controls the life of the institution, and must assume all of the responsibility in so ordering that life that the institutions under its care may prosper. It is the duty of the institutions by properly presenting their needs to put this responsibility squarely up to the department, and there it must rest until these needs have been met. What is true of this department is true of all other departments having jurisdiction in our institutions. If things sometimes move slowly with our present system, we must remember that we are large consumers of red tape and that the adjustment and readjustment of red tape requires time. But this is the fault of the system for which the Legislature, and not the departments, is responsible.

If our machinery is intricate and cumbersome, it will not run the better for useless fault finding and fussing. What it needs is perfect co-operation of all its parts, each knowing and fulfilling its mission, bound together by a common purpose to uplift and improve the institutions of the state to the end that those committed to their care may realize to the full the benefits of their establishment.

THE CHAIRMAN: The paper just read was prepared by Joseph P. Byers, superintendent of the House of Refuge. Discussion will be opened by Homer Folks.

HOMER FOLKS: Mr. Chairman, I read the title of Mr. Byers' paper several months ago with extreme interest. I read the paper itself a few days ago, also with interest, but with a difference. It reminded me just a bit of the old gentleman who was particularly strong in his orthodoxy, who was asked one day by a more liberal friend if he believed in the doctrine of complete and total depravity. He said, "Oh, yes; oh, yes; I believe in it. I believe in it fully. But I could not say that I really know anybody who

entirely lives up to it." And if Mr. Byers were here I would be inclined to suggest that his paper did not entirely live up to the title assigned to him, that of Divided Authority in the Management of State Charitable Institutions.

In discussing the paper, I am not taking into consideration the personnel of state departments, or the manner in which they have been administered; but only the division of powers and responsibilities as outlined by the statutes.

It seems to me that one can read the statutes defining the management of the state charitable institutions without feeling that they have been built up on a radically wrong system, namely, that when a public official does wrong or makes a serious mistake, the proper thing to do is to provide some other public official to watch upon and exercise sanction over the acts of the former; and then when the second one is charged with making a serious mistake, or of doing wrong, of establishing a third department with entire power to check and control the actions of the second and the first. Then, when the third makes a mistake, or is alleged to have made a mistake, to again establish a fourth official with entire power to check and control the actions of the third. It is built upon unqualified expectation of incompetency and presumable extravagance on the part of public officials.

That, to my mind, is an absolutely wrong system. It seems to me that when a public official does wrong or makes a serious error, the proper principle is to hold him accountable for his wrong or his mistake. He should be made to correct his error. If he does wrong, he should be removed. By that line of action, in my judgment, we may reach efficiency of administration, and uprightness of administration, rather than by means of an endless series of checks.

While the present system provides any number of people to see to it that things do not go wrong, there is no one whose clear duty it is to see that they go at all. It is full of brakes and governors, but there is no certain provision for steam pressure in the boiler.

There are some misconceptions, it seems to me, in the public mind, which in part account for this state of facts. The first is that the State Board of Charities is rather commonly regarded as a body having to do largely with the *management* of the state institutions. It is *supposed* to be charged with their management; but it is not, actually, and never has been charged with their management. It is charged with the duty of *inspecting* state insti-

tutions. It is not a managing body, though supposed so to be; and in my judgment its composition and its organization are not those which would be best adapted to a body to be charged with the administration and management of state institutions. Its great work is that of inspection — to turn on the light, absolutely without fear or favor, and to turn on the light not only on state institutions, but on municipal and county and private institutions. It has greater powers, under the Constitution, over private institutions receiving public funds than over public institutions. The greatest misfortune in my judgment that could befall the State Board of Charities would be to be reorganized with a view primarily to the management of state institutions.

The second unfortunate psychological factor is that the Department of the State Fiscal Supervisor, while not supposed to be charged with the management of state institutions, is in fact so charged; it is of necessity exercising actual powers of management. Whoever holds the purse strings is *it*. If I can make no expenditure whatever, without the approval of a particular person, and the quality and quantity of the articles to be purchased are matters over which I have no control, what is left for me? In private life the only people we treat that way are the extremely young, the extremely old and the absolutely incapacitated. The man holding the purse strings is the man who does in fact exercise powers of management of the state charitable institutions. In my judgment, he should be clearly and definitely seen to be charged with that responsibility. The thing which appears to me to be most dangerous and difficult is the fact that he exercises powers — and he must exercise powers, which he is not actually supposed to possess. He is actually supposed to possess only a negative power. The statutes contemplate a purely inhibitive power of preventing unwise expenditures, but I think that any reflection upon the actual affairs of institutions, and the slightest experience in the management of institutions, must convince any one that there cannot be a separation between the one whose duty it is to conceive of policies and to incur expenses, and the person who is to stop the incurring of expense. Our state charities are in the situation of a train which has one engineer to turn on the steam, and another engineer to apply the brakes, the two being on barely speaking terms. It is no wonder the passengers on such a train are uncomfortable, and its progress uncertain.

I do not believe there is any permanent place in the manage-

ment of state institutions for a purely negative body or power. It is not a case of two jobs. It is one job, and the same mind and the same hand that control the throttle should control the brakes.

Now, as to the boards of management, I will defy any one — lawyer, merchant, priest or doctor — to state what the powers of the boards of managers are. They are in the situation of the original states of the Union. They possessed originally full powers of sovereignty. Their powers have never been redefined; but many powers, some of them vague, far reaching and comprehensive, have been taken from them and delegated to the various central authorities: And what is left, no one can really say.

In a word; I would abolish the Salary Classification Commission; I would abolish the State Buildings Commission; and, to the utmost extent possible, put the powers of management back in the hands of the Boards of Managers, and I would give to the Department of the Fiscal Supervisor, as a general superintendent of state institutions, only such powers as are necessary to co-ordinate the various institutions.

THE CHAIRMAN: Discussion of this subject will be further presented by Deputy-Fiscal Supervisor Prescott, whom I will now introduce.

MR. PRESCOTT: One sentence in the interesting paper of Mr. Byers which impressed me particularly was to the effect that "if things sometimes move slowly with our present system, we must remember that we are large consumers of red tape and that the adjustment and readjustment of red tape requires time. But this is the fault of the system for which the Legislature and not the department is to blame." That, I think, is the substance of his remark.

I am personally in entire accord with this statement, and without undertaking to criticise legislation, which has been formulated from time to time to meet particular needs, I am of the opinion that a very material reduction of red tape could be made to the advantage of the state and to the relief of all who are struggling with the many difficult problems arising in the administration of state institutions.

I do not agree with Mr. Byers in his statement that the charitable institutions are no worse off than the state hospitals and state prisons, if he regards red tape as an evil, for they certainly are far more extensively enmeshed than is either of the other

groups of state institutions. As you are all reasonably familiar with the nine departments, boards and commissions with which the charitable institutions are required by law to transact business, there is no necessity for my discussing their various functions. I prefer to hark back to the subject of this discussion, and, as my contribution, suggest a possible way out of the difficulty. The problem of the best method of administering the affairs of public institutions to-day is engaging the attention of the entire country.

In several of the western states, there are what are known as state boards of control. In some of these boards, practically all of the functions of government for the institutions are lodged. They appoint officials and employees, visit and inspect the institutions, and control all of the financial operations. They represent complete centralized control with very great powers, and consequently, great responsibility. The arguments in favor of the board of control idea are simplicity and economy. The dangers of such a system, I believe, far more than effect any possible advantages.

A central board cannot adequately replace local boards of managers. A central board which controls the finances of public institutions ought not to be charged with the visitation and inspection of those institutions. Such a policy is quite on a par with the making the cashier of a bank his own bank examiner. A central board or department can, very properly, administer the financial affairs of public institutions. When the powers of a state board of control are limited to that, a step has been taken toward simplifying administration and guaranteeing economy as far as economy can be guaranteed, without lowering the standard of efficiency. My observations have convinced me that a competent local board of managers for any institution is a valuable asset to the state. With such a board in full control of the internal affairs of an institution, with power to appoint the superintendent and make all rules and regulations, the welfare of the inmates ought to be well assured.

With a central financial administrative department to make contracts where desirable, determine what industries can properly be carried on in the state institutions, with a view to making them interdependent, prepare plans for new buildings and supervise construction, classify positions and fix salaries subject to legislative approval — in short, as a general institutional clearing house,

to attend to the thousand and one details that must be attended to, the state would have all the control necessary to utilize profitably the labor of such of its wards as are capable of labor, and to stop waste and extravagance. More than that, the state ought not to undertake.

Finally, there should continue to be a board or boards charged with the duties of visitation and inspection as a final assurance that there should be no abuses in the local management of the institutions on the one hand or in the financial administration on the other hand. Such a system as I have outlined above would give greater freedom to the local boards of managers, and at the same time, with the central financial board and the central visitatorial board, protect the state against extravagance and the inmates against abuses of any nature; at the same time offering a system that would be free from criticism on the ground of political interference. It is fair to the 40,000 wards of the state and fair to the taxpayers who support them.

Before such a system can be secured, however, an extensive codification of the laws affecting state institutions will be necessary. Before such a system could be decided upon, they would have to modify at least five of the most important laws on the statute books — the finance law, the charities law, the insanity law, the public buildings law and the public officers law, all of which are included in the laws to be changed before they could work out any such system as is required. This would go back to the very beginning and wipe out everything that has been done, piecemeal, and then start fresh with new foundations.

These remarks I have made I make not officially, but as my own impressions, based on seven years' experience at Albany, where we have had to grapple with some serious problems in the department, from its inception, which were not very popular.

THE CHAIRMAN: The report of the committee and the matters presented for discussion are now before the Conference for general discussion. There are so many delegates from various institutions of the state present that I am quite sure there are many who would like to give expression of their views upon the subject. You will notice that I make this remark simply parenthetically, while some of you make up your minds to speak in the discussion. You will notice in the papers read, and the discussion thus far had, the need of a radical change in the system, or rather in the want of system, in this state, in the management of state

institutions. That is conceded by all. It is conceded that the present situation has become practically impossible. It is gratifying to know that the last speaker, who is the deputy fiscal supervisor, recognizes the necessity for this revision of the system as fully as do the others.

We will be glad to hear any discussion on this subject now.

If there is none desiring to take part in this discussion, we will proceed to the next number on the program which has reference to the great lunacy commission of the state. On that subject we will have a paper presented by the president of the State Commission in Lunacy, Dr. Albert W. Ferris, the title of which is Voluntary Patients in State Hospitals for the Insane.

DR. ALBERT WARREN FERRIS: Heredity is, to a large extent, inexorable. Certain qualities of parents are undoubtedly transmitted to their offspring. The transmission of general structure is acknowledged. Height, obesity, leanness or longevity in the ancestor is found with considerable frequency in a large proportion of the descendants. No one can deny that a capacity for gout is transmissible, as also lowered resistance of the tissues of some organs to the implantation of the germs of certain diseases.

For generations we have been taught that in no class of disease has the hereditary tendency been more easily demonstrated, or the reproduction of parental qualities been more sure to occur, than in the disorders of the mind. An acceptance of this statement in its broadest application has so impressed us as to result in a reduction of our interest and ambition, and in a conviction of the uselessness of putting forth all our possible efforts in an attempt to combat a condition that is, at the start, considered inevitable and hopeless.

In the matter of treating and curing cases of mental disorder we have felt that above us hung the black pall of an avenging Nemesis, by which much if not all of the light of life would be shut out, in spite of our best efforts. A failure to ameliorate morbid mental states was viewed without chagrin, and even with complacency, as a result to be expected. A recovery was indeed a triumph; but was regarded as a wide and inexplicable departure, and not to be taken as a precedent for guidance in future therapeutic activity. The cultivation of this feeling resulted in the establishment of the idea that a "stigma" attached to all who had suffered from mental alienation; that the fact of such a condition

should be sedulously concealed; and the absurd idea took root that its existence was more or less disgraceful.

Recognizing the fact that most people believed in the "stigma" resulting from mental disorder, relatives of one who had been insane carefully hid or boldly denied the fact, lest opportunities for future occupation be imperiled, and lest the chances for marriage of the daughters of the family should be diminished. Such a course of action is plainly wrong, for if insanity be strongly hereditary, why encourage its propagation by the possible redoubling of tendencies to such disease when from both parties to a marriage may be concealed the same fact regarding a morbid ancestry? Charles Mercier defines insanity as "want of adjustment to one's environment." If we can master the facts of the environment, we can devise methods of altering it, or of removing certain features of it, or of antidoting some of its ill effects. By increasing the resistance to family tendency, by putting obstacles in the way of the undermining ancestral traits, we may baffle heredity, and its power may always lie dormant.

Many thoughtful psychiatrists of to-day no longer look upon the discovery of a brain lesion as the only basis of action. They do not even claim that the chief cause of mental aberration must necessarily be in the brain. Many insanities are due to disease of the arteries, including the arteries of the brain; to presence in the blood of poisons resulting from defective elimination of waste products; to reduction of the quality of the blood; to disordered function following stress and strain; and to improper and unhygienic use of the mind.

Palliation or removal of these conditions has resulted in the emergence of some insane patients from their abnormal mental state, in spite of the existing hereditary influence. I state the case crudely and but partially, when I say that the psychiatrist of to-day, therefore, aims to ascertain in what respect the insane patient is out of adjustment with his environment and his own proper hygiene; what facts in his earlier history bear upon his present mental attitude; from what early experiences erroneous deductions have been made that initiated alarm, worry, despair or wrong habits of thoughts?

Is it not obvious that the methods of the olden time and even of the recent past are unsuccessful in solving the great problem of insanity? We are not limiting the number of insane persons in the state. For many years the incidence of insanity in New York

State has been such that 6,000 new cases are received annually into our state hospitals. While about 2,000 cases die annually, and many are discharged recovered or so far improved as to be returned to their people, the average net increase has been 715 each year. On October 1, 1907, the net increase was about 750, and on October 1, 1908, at the close of the fiscal year we found our net increase had amounted to 1,247. What have we been doing to meet this condition? A great torrent has been pouring down the mountain side, threatening us with a devastating flood. We have been building catch basins, larger and larger in size, and filling the basin full to overflowing. Why not go to the fountain head, if we would limit the stream, and control the flow? Why not ascertain and remove the cause of the inundation? Our policy has been to encourage procrastination until cases of mental disorder showed such evident and well-established disease as to admit of certification, adjudication and commitment. In the opinion of friends and the community, a judicial opinion that the alleged insane person is insane throws a cloud on his future business capacity, and operates to his detriment. Yet we hopelessly adopt it and cling to it.

Many jurists tell us that a statute providing for the detention of an insane person would be unconstitutional unless it provided for a notification to him of proceedings looking to such detention, and a chance be given to him to be heard. In fact, the greater number of jurists claim that all cases of alleged insanity should be taken into court, that the justice, without knowledge of psychiatry in the vast majority of instances, may decide the matter and dismiss or commit. The damage done to the patient is not considered. The deep impressions made upon the wavering mind of one who is in so many respects treated as a criminal is with difficulty erased; indeed, it often remains for years and renders treatment far more difficult and far less hopeful. Should we consider it perfectly legal to restrain a patient who suffers from the delirium of typhoid fever when he wishes to leave his bed, or leave the house? Is not even such restraint unconstitutional, in that it deprives a patient of his liberty without giving him notice of the proceeding or affording him an opportunity to be heard in his own behalf? I think I hear someone say that this argument reduces the matter to an absurdity, and that a reasonable view should be taken. Let me assure you that in this argument is not as much absurdity as exists in a very large proportion of the medi-

cal certificates of insanity that are prepared to-day by scores of legally (but not medically) "qualified examiners in lunacy." What would you say to me if I should suggest, as a cognate matter to the subject in hand, that you consider the entire abolishment of the commitment papers as now provided, since in a vast number of cases they present no history of the patient's previous experience, no description of the patient's present condition, and no adequate grounds for believing the patient is insane at all? The actual decision of the patient's mental condition must really be made by the receiving physician in the hospital to which the sufferer is sent. Do not misunderstand me; I do not make such suggestions now as the abolition of commitments.

Prof. Adolph Meyer, director of the Psychiatric Institute of the New York State Hospitals for the Insane, makes the very happy suggestion that a procedure resembling quarantine is really the one to be adopted for the protection of the family and the community, and especially for the benefit of the patient. This illuminates the whole subject. For the safety of the community and of the individual, isolation and special treatment must be secured. Dr. Meyer, therefore, suggests that insanity be notifiable to a medical health officer, who should be invested with power to act early and promptly and to quarantine the insane patient under proper care. Such a disposition of the matter would reduce improper treatment and demoralization to a minimum. This suggestion should not be startling, for not only are the infected quarantined, but they also who have been exposed to contagion are isolated, often for a long period of time.

Medicine has been thoroughly stripped of mystery. We are emancipated from the ideas of evil spirits, devils and demons. We have emerged from the mediæval darkness during which we punished the insane. Let us now as far as possible strike off from the ankles and wrists of the insane the shackles of court procedure which to-day hold them down to the level of the criminal.

To accomplish most successfully the results at which modern psychiatry aims with modern methods, cases of mental disorder should be seen early. The incipient case, the border line case, must be reached and prevented from gliding down the slope into a profound psychosis. Let us then put considerations of heredity aside and let us abandon the absurd term "stigma" and the idea it conveys, and let us encourage the patient to secure early psychiatric aid while reason, judgment and will still persist. In

other words, let us open the way for voluntary application for early treatment of all classes of persons whose mental equilibrium is wavering. Here we encounter a difficulty, for we must at the outset define the limits of voluntary action. Jurists and physicians alike have been slow to publish their conclusions regarding voluntary action of patients affected mentally, just as they were tardy in deciding that the insane were entitled to medical aid as much as any other ill persons.

It will be recalled that in 1788 was put upon the statute books of this state "An act for apprehending or punishing disorderly persons," which gave authority to two or more justices of the peace to apprehend and lock up dangerous insane persons in some secure place, who if such justices shall find it necessary, shall "be there chained," a provision of law born of ignorance and timidity. Various statutes, somewhat less brutal, were enacted thereafter, and many varieties of commitment by overseers of the poor and justices were devised.

It was not until 1873 that the matter was put into the hands of a physician when Dr. John Ordranax was appointed the New York State Commissioner in Lunacy, to fill a newly created office. Licenses for private houses were drawn which in some instances restricted the physician in charge to the admission of committed cases. In others, there was no such restriction stated, and the admission of voluntary cases was tacitly permitted.

When the single commissioner was displaced by the creation of a commission consisting of a physician, a lawyer and a layman in 1889, the subject of voluntary patients in private institutions for the insane was gravely considered. No actual ruling as to voluntary patients seems to have been made by the New York State Commission till 1891, when the commission headed by Dr. Carlos F. MacDonald, formulated the special document which ran as follows:

"Application for Admission of Voluntary Patient.

"I (name), hereby request the physician in charge of the above-named institution to admit me as a voluntary patient. I hereby pledge myself to submit to the regulations thereof, to carry out, or aid in carrying out, all the directions which may be given for my treatment, and that my conduct will not be prejudicial to the good order and discipline of the institution. I do hereby declare that I am aware that the above-named institution is

licensed by the State Commission in Lunacy to care for and hold in custody insane patients; that the physician in charge fully explained to me the character of the institution, and that I am at liberty to depart therefrom at my pleasure. I hereby consent that the members of the State Commission in Lunacy may freely visit my apartments on any proper occasion, make such inquiries of me as they may deem necessary, and that I will make truthful answers thereto.

"In witness whereof I have hereunto set my hand, etc."

This application was witnessed by two people who knew the patient, who were neither of them committee members or a relative or guardian, nor connected with the institution, and who believed the patient to be rational.

At the same time, November, 1891, it was ordered by the commission — "That no voluntary patient shall be admitted to a licensed institution for the care, custody and treatment of the insane permitted to retain voluntary as well as committed patients whose mind is so impaired as to render him incapable of forming a rational judgment as to the disposition of his person or whose will is so weak as to render him incapable of resisting influence, or unless application is made in the form prescribed by the commission, etc."

Thus we had adopted regulations which proved perplexing and unsatisfactory and which in reality frustrated the idea and appeared deterrent. Naturally this provision proved inadequate. Hence in November, 1898, the following order was promulgated by the commission: "Voluntary patients may now be received by all private institutions at will, consequent upon the rescinding of all rules relative thereto, by the commission, and by letter of instruction and notification to physicians in charge of such institutions." In this letter of instruction this statement occurred:

"The commission also holds that 'voluntary' admissions are patients whose liberty is not restricted, who are not insane within the meaning of the statute and who voluntarily remain under care and treatment."

Although the commission, in 1898, rescinded certain rules formulated relative to voluntary patients, it has not set aside the definition of the term voluntary patient, which remains. Stating the facts in a different form — if a patient suffering from mental disorder still possesses a mind which is not so impaired as to render him incapable of forming rational judgment as to the

disposition of his person, and a will which is not so weak as to render him incapable of resisting influence; he may properly become a voluntary patient.

As tending to offer an opportunity to a large number of patients whose means will not allow them to avail themselves of treatment in a private institution, the commission introduced a bill at the 1908 session of the state Legislature so amending the insanity law as to provide for the admission into the state hospitals, excepting Matteawan and Dannemora, of voluntary patients upon their written application, to be maintained as are the committed patients, pursuant to rules and regulations established by the commission.

To guard against abuse and prevent improper admissions under the statutes thus amended, the commission has ruled that no alcoholic patients without definite psychoses and no cases of drug habit without definite psychoses shall be admitted to the state hospitals.

Now there opens before the department an era of great possibilities. New York state practically monopolizes the care of the insane, having been forced into this position because of crying abuses occurring under county management. New York is under obligation to make a complete investigation into the causes of insanity by means of close analysis and statistical study. She is under obligation to diffuse in all directions throughout her territory information as to the agencies that cause and the conditions that invite insanity; she is under obligation to supervise and encourage local efforts for the more intelligent treatment of mental disorder.

With the tremendous opportunity for putting into practice the best methods of treatment and dictating with almost absolutism the conditions surrounding the great majority of the insane within its borders in parallel lines lies the duty, the tremendous duty, of neglecting no means, postponing no methods, abandoning no expedients that science, humanity and common sense can devise or suggest for the amelioration if not the cure of those with "minds diseased."

Dr. John B. Chapin, physician-in-chief and superintendent of the Pennsylvania Hospital for the Insane, and recalled with affection as the genius of Willard for many years after its establishment, as long ago as 1890 wrote: "It is the public policy to encourage prompt and early treatment of all curable cases rather than to surround the admission of such cases to the hospitals by

obstacles, delays and vexatious peril to those engaged in processes of commitment."

In 1892 he wrote: "An opinion has been entertained that the provisions of the insanity law might be so far liberalized that patients not sufficiently disordered in mind as to be certified to be insane, yet suffering from grave incipient symptoms of insanity, might be admitted as voluntary residents of the hospitals for medical treatment."

Very largely, in all probability, as a result of Dr. Chapin's teaching and expression of conviction, a clause was inserted in the insanity law of Pennsylvania which permits a person to sign a voluntary assent to enter a hospital for treatment for thirty days, at the end of which time the request may be renewed. In 1902, fourteen patients suffering from impaired health and threatened with mental disease voluntarily sought admission to the Pennsylvania Hospital. In 1906, the number of uncommitted patients suffering from disordered mental functions rose to eighty-nine, including cases of alcoholism and drug habit. Illinois, a state which is forging along with giant strides in the care of her insane, has enacted a lunacy law which contains the following provision:

"Any person who may be in the early stages of insanity who may desire the benefit of treatment in a state or licensed private hospital for insane as a voluntary patient, may be admitted to such hospital on his own written application, accompanied by a certificate from the county court of the county in which such applicant resides, stating that such person is a private or county patient, as the case may be, and such person shall, if admitted to a state or licensed private hospital for the insane, have the same standing as other private or county patients: Provided, that all voluntary patients shall have the right to leave the hospital at any time on giving three days' notice to the superintendent." This provision is not satisfactory, and the very efficient Board of State Commissioners of Public Charities of Illinois is attempting to establish a better status for the voluntary patient.

But it is to Massachusetts that we must look for a brilliant example of the value and the feasibility of provisions for reception into the hospitals of voluntary cases. For many years the statutes of that state have authorized this measure. McLean Hospital has taken the lead in this matter. During the ten years preceding 1904, 310 voluntary patients or one and two-fifths per cent. of all admissions were received into the six public hospitals, against

615 voluntary patients received during the same period into McLean.

In 1906, 189 voluntary patients were admitted into the Massachusetts hospitals, an increase of eighty-four over the previous year, while 2,694 were admitted under commitment. In 1907, voluntary admissions reached 156, of which number McLean Hospital received 104. Of the insane admitted upon voluntary application, only seven required subsequent commitment. The total number of admissions for the year reached 3,022. McLean Hospital receives about forty-five per cent. of its patients as voluntary, its census is about 185, and its percentage of recoveries averages nearly twenty-nine.

Thus we see that New York is not embarking upon an untried sea. We are not making an experiment. We are adopting a certain method of prevention of continued insanity and a tested measure of early relief. While our annual death rate in the state hospitals for the insane is eight per cent. of the population, forty per cent. of all the deaths occur during the first year of the admission and fifteen and three-fifths per cent. of the new cases die during their first year of residence in the hospitals.

Can we avoid the thought that earlier treatment might have saved some of these cases within whom are concealed the seeds of death at the time of admission? There is but one economic as well as but one scientific solution of the great problem, and that consists of prophylaxis and early treatment.

Ascertain the causes of the alarming over-production of lunacy; teach the people what are the dangers to avoid; restrict by law, if necessary, the demoralizing influences that are at work. Enforce by endless repetition the fact that insanity is not a special disease, like malaria, to be treated with a specific like quinine; but that it is rather a sociological problem resulting from heredity, faulty education, habits, food, surroundings, occupation and physical disorders; that it must be treated at the earliest moment, if it is to be checked. While yet there is easy access to the patient's confidence and to his real thoughts, adjust him to his environment, explain and harmonize his troubles, errors or transgressions, stem the current of mistake and obsession, relieve his physical disorders. Let the wavering mentality, while comparative, reason, will and judgment still remain in control, seek early, individual and judicious psychiatric aid.

THE CHAIRMAN: Discussion of the paper just presented will be opened by Dr. Richard Hutchings.

DR. HUTCHINGS: The law which permits the admission of voluntary patients has been in operation so short a time that none of us have acquired an extensive experience with its operation. We have had at the St. Lawrence State Hospital eight requests for admission. Of these seven were admitted. One was immediately examined upon our request as he was clearly insane and in a recurrence of maniac-depressive insanity, and one is still pending. It will perhaps be of interest to hear a brief abstract of these cases as it will show what kind of people have taken advantage of the new law to obtain relief.

The first case was that of a man who had formerly been a patient in the hospital but who had been discharged as "not insane" three months previously, but had been unable to get along at home. He complained of mental and physical incapacity; was troubled with paresthetic symptoms and had taken to the use of morphine, which he had not used to any great extent. He had constant depression and fear of suicide. He had worked as a barber up to a few days prior to his arrival at the hospital, but said, "I have had spells when I could not control my feelings and would have to shut up the shop and go out for a walk. I have lost about ten pounds in weight. When a man is in such agony he feels he would be better out of the way. I came here because I thought it was the best place for me."

After his admission to the ward he seemed much relieved and so expressed himself, but was inactive, had a sad expression, and talked in a whining tone of voice. He remained in the hospital about five months. Greatly improved but not entirely free from depression.

The second case was that of a physician who had recently graduated, and who had attempted to establish himself in a private practice in a small country town. He had during the past two or three years undergone considerable mental strain in preparing for his examinations and had resorted to alcohol as a stimulant. His efforts to establish a private practice were not successful. He had debts and felt growing incapacity to exert himself and retrieve his fortune. He became depressed, had thoughts of suicide and gave quite a pitiful tale upon making his application. He particularly called attention to his feeling of hopelessness for the future and

his inability to make up his mind about ordinary affairs; said that he was constantly in an attitude of waiting to decide and accomplished nothing. In admitting this patient we were deceived by a man who was capable of drawing a fine clinical picture which was suited to the occasion on hand. I doubt if all he told was true. At any rate he made no serious effort to help in the treatment of his case; deceived the physicians and nurses whenever possible; had friends bring him liquor while he was a patient at the hospital, and, as might well be inferred, gained no benefit from the treatment he was given. He relapsed into his old habits as soon as he was discharged, made a silly attempt at suicide which was not successful, and when last heard of was undergoing treatment in the hands of a concern which advertises to cure the liquor habit.

The third case was that of a young woman, thirty-six years of age, a confidential servant and a companion to a lady of wealth who had been well as usual up to four months previously when she became engaged to be married to an eligible man, in fact, one who was in a somewhat better social position than herself. She began to have doubts as to her duty in the matter, feared that she would not make him an acceptable wife, thought possibly she was doing wrong to leave the family where she worked, and to whom she was much attached; began to lose confidence in her ability to decide questions, thought that she was not a good manager and had a sense of hopelessness and dreaded the duties which she had heretofore performed with ease and success. Her own account will perhaps be clearer than any description that I could give.

"About two months ago it was time to set the date of the wedding, and I thought I could not make him a good wife; I felt mentally I was not his equal; I had not a very good education and all that began to work on me and I worried and thought it would not be fair; I have always had difficulty in remembering, but it seems to have gotten worse recently. I got so muddled I was not able to do my work and got discouraged about everything. I felt disinterested and things seemed harder for me. Since I realized that I could not make this marriage I began to worry about my whole life and wonder what I would do and how I would get my living. I got some laudanum and thought I would end my life, but I did not take it because I realized it was a terrible thing to do. I felt so helpless about things."

The patient rapidly improved after admission to the hospital.

At first she complained of a feeling of confusion in her mind and feared that she would never be better, but became more cheerful, quite interested in her surroundings and was removed by her employer at the end of one month. She subsequently continued to improve and is now entirely well.

The fourth case was that of a farmer; age forty-five; was in good physical health but had had a mild depression seven years ago following the death of a son; he had, however, remained at home and followed his occupation. He applied for admission on the ground that he was not able to think and he felt despondent and lost interest in his work. He realized that some change had taken place in him. His family and his attending physician were opposed to his commitment, saying that it was nothing but overwork and that a rest would restore him to his health. However, he insisted upon coming to the hospital. After admission to the hospital, he remained in this condition for several days when depression gradually grew deeper. He would sit about listlessly, said that he was unable to think, that he had no feeling in his head and that he had a feeling of discouragement. His mind was perfectly clear as to his surroundings and his own condition. He admitted that he had harbored the thought of suicide; he said, "I haven't wanted to live for a good while — I couldn't talk or do nothing." He expressed no regret for the past and had no delusions of unworthiness. A few days after his admission he became restless, began to express delusions, saying, "I'm in awful shape; all gone; a dead man. My legs are gone." He asked to be thrown out and killed. When these symptoms made their appearance he was regularly examined and committed as an insane person.

The fifth case was a man of thirty-seven years of age; single. This patient applied for admission on the ground that he was depressed, had buzzing sensations in his head; was unable to work. He said, "I cannot explain doctor, my nerves shake all over — I have been so all summer. I didn't work to amount to anything since last spring. It is hard for me to think. I get muddled and rattled. I feel like tipping over. My heart always bothered me — it jumps and throbs. My work worries me, and my health, and the future worries me." Upon further investigation it appeared that he had been alcoholic and that his present trouble was probably due to that cause. After his admission to the hospital and his abstinence from liquor his symptoms gradually grew worse and it became necessary to have him examined and regularly committed.

The sixth case was a young man; age twenty-nine; came alone to the hospital and requested admission as a voluntary patient. This man had formerly been a patient in a hospital suffering from maniac-depressive insanity and upon examination it was evident that his present symptoms were a return of his former trouble, and he was accordingly examined and committed in the usual way.

The last case is that of man; age thirty-one; a clergyman who gave a history of having had a nervous breakdown while attending the theological seminary. At that time he suffered from headache and mental depression and feeling of hopelessness. He recovered after a few weeks. Two years ago he had a similar attack and lost his voice. During his attack he was treated in a hospital in one of the large cities and was given morphine. Upon recovery and discharge he continued using the morphine for about six months—since that time he has taken none but during his spells of depression he has resorted to alcoholic stimulants. He applied for admission for the reason that he had been depressed, had worried about some debts which he had contracted and was obsessed with the thought of suicide. He took a gun, went out into the woods with the idea of committing suicide, but his nerve failed him and he returned.

He improved under treatment, has gained in weight and strength, and will be discharged shortly if his improvement continues. It will be seen, therefore, that of the seven cases admitted, three were soon examined as they were clearly insane; one was discharged improved, one was unimproved and two recovered. The only complete failure was that of the second case, the physician who was an alcoholic, and who as Dr. Ferris has said are hardly suitable cases for admission under this law. We did not know the full truth in regard to his habits when he was admitted and gave too much weight to his own account of the symptoms.

The previous case had been previously committed in regular way but we had been obliged to discharge him when it was evident that he was not insane and I was well pleased to have him apply for admission under the new law for he was clearly in need of help, and his improvement in four months was very great. Though he did not fully recover from his depression which seems to be constitutional, he was in condition to resume his employment.

The gratitude of the patients who recovered was touching; they had full insight into their condition and they realized that the assistance given them in a critical moment had saved their reason and perhaps their lives.

From the experience we have had I am heartily in favor of the law and believe it will operate to the benefit of many real sufferers who could not be certified as actually insane, or whose friends shrinking from the stigma of a legal declaration of insanity temporize until the case is far advanced.

But there is another benefit even greater that will accrue to the hospitals themselves. The spectacle of people coming and going to our state hospitals of their own free will will impress upon the public the idea that they are hospitals and that they exist for the benefit of the people, and I believe that by this means much of the suspicion and dread which still attaches itself in the minds of many people to hospitals for the insane will in time pass away.

THE CHAIRMAN: This subject is now before the Conference for discussion.

CHARLES G. WAGNER (superintendent of the Binghamton State Hospital for the Insane): Ladies and gentlemen: Representing one of the large institutions for the insane in the state of New York, I have been very deeply interested in the very timely paper that Dr. Ferris has presented to you this afternoon, and one or two thoughts have occurred to me as he read his paper, about which I would like to utter a few words.

This statute or section 79 of the insanity law, which forms a basis of Dr. Ferris' paper, is to my mind one of the most important, if not the most important thing done in recent years for the betterment of the insane. Prior to last winter, for just one-third of a century, the dominant idea of our lawmakers in framing legislation for the insane appears to have been to build hospitals, and then to hedge them around with such formidable restrictions that to enter one of them was a very serious matter for any person suffering from mental disorder. In the first place it was necessary for two physicians to make a joint examination. That alone was rather terrifying to the man or woman who was already very nervous. After that examination, the physicians were required to go before a court of competent jurisdiction, have their findings passed upon and approved by that judge, and oftentimes that judge would summon the patient before him, and put him through what the police call "the third degree" to satisfy himself that the man should go to an institution for the insane. Then there was another very intimidating thing about all this — the patient feared when the judge made the order committing him to the institution

for insane, he thought, in the words of Dante, "All hope abandon, ye who enter here," was written in invisible characters over the portal. He knew he was nervous and feared he would become insane by going through this public examination, and the commitment was terrifying.

Now comes this statute which Dr. Ferris has been largely responsible for putting on our statute books, and he says to the patient, that you have simply to make application and state that you would like to be treated by one of the state institutions for the insane, and you are admitted, and you are given the assurance, if once in, you do not want to stay, give three days' notice and you can walk right out again.

That has simplified the whole matter so that the man in need of institutional care and treatment may have it without practically any formality. The institutions which the state of New York has provided, to my mind, are in many respects far superior to most of our private institutions, and far superior to the best possible care that can be given in private homes, for the reason that our state hospitals have a corps of trained nurses, especially trained for the care of the insane. They have a corps of physicians, who by long treatment in the care of insane persons, must know better than physicians in private life, who see two or three cases in the course of a year, or even perhaps a less number. If a person is cared for in a private house, the friends feel the need of guarding him closely, perhaps to prevent straying away from home and in many cases they lock him up in a back room of the house. In an institution he has the larger domain of the ward where he has ample opportunity to walk about to and fro, and he is taken out regularly for exercise if he needs it and special care, and when well enough to be trusted, he is called a parole patient, and is allowed the freedom of the grounds or the city where the institution is located.

Then there is entertainment and occupation provided for that disordered and hopeless mind that makes him feel that after all there is hope for him, and if he will do his part, the institution will put him on his feet as a worker among his fellows again. From the economic side, it is of the most importance that these men should have the proper and prompt treatment. If allowed to remain at home until they become chronic cases, and are sent only to be cared for the rest of their lives, they not only become a burden to the extent of \$200 a year on the state, but all the

work that would have been done for the rest of their lives, is gone. Their families in some instances go to the poorhouse, and their children become paupers, and you cannot calculate how much loss it is to the state, when the head of a family, man or woman, becomes hopelessly insane. Now section 79 of the law, which allows them to go in the early stages of their trouble for treatment, it seems to me will be productive of great benefit to the insane.

MR. SAUNDERS: What we have heard seems to be very good for the persons thought to be sick, or who really are sick. But how about the person brought there involuntarily and placed in these institutions with simply one doctor to examine him, and to say that he is out of his mind, and he is placed away in the institution; what protection is afforded to that man under the new law? Is that man protected as he was previously?

DR. FERRIS: The new law had nothing to do with that matter. The law already contains a provision for his protection. Instead of one physician to examine, the law requires two, and the petition or application for his commitment must be made by someone living in the house or in the family, or physicians, and then the commitment is certified by two physicians. Then it is taken to the judge and the judge inquires as to the circumstances and the condition of the patient's mind. The case referred to by the gentleman is only true in case of a conspiracy between the person asking for his commitment, the two physicians, the judge and the institutions, nurses and attendants, to which he is sent.

MR. HALL: One question to the layman's mind is, that under this voluntary system there is the fear of never coming out once he has gone in. In three of the cases cited, they were examined in the institution and committed as insane, after going in there. Is there any check on such findings or commitments?

DR. FERRIS: The same point is covered, it seems to me, by what has been said. If after the patient has given notice, five days before he were to leave, if such a patient, after giving notice, is found to be dangerous we have no right to turn such a man out on the public. That is only, however, in the case of a dangerous person.

DR. ADOLF MEYER: It is a surprise to anyone really when you come to look into the question, that there should be any legal com-

mitment in the cases of insanity in case of illness, unless one studies how the commitment notion has developed. Dr. Ferris has pointed very clearly to the statute of 1788 which dealt with all forms of mental disorders as acts of misdemeanor, and therefore comes to be dealt with from the police standpoint and the legal. That is the origin of legal business surrounding the control of the treatment of the insane. It took a long time to gradually transform the idea into the mind of the public that it was a protection, that the legal process was a protection of the liberty of the individual. That came about through the fact that a number of individuals who are committed as patients, naturally resent the measures taken in their behalf and for the protection of the public. We see there are always a number of patients who object to being taken care of, and thus naturally that precipitated the question: Is there a legal right that we should be subjected to such interference with our personal liberty? Now, in order to satisfy the relatively small number of cases, laws have been passed that everybody must be submitted to that procedure which is described as simply appropriate treatment of these unfortunate persons.

In communities where the legal and police attitude was not so firmly established as in this state, where it is a matter of 120 years' custom, there are also protections of patients, but they are on a different line. Those patients who do not object to treatment, in whom absolutely no serious objection is raised, are not subjected to that more or less brutal bringing into the police courts for examination. But those who either personally wish the process, or whose relatives or friends question the right of such management, those have the privilege of getting him. Instead of the court procedure being a privilege, it makes it an affliction for everybody. I think few people know how many safeguards there are for the patients in the hospitals at the present time. In the first place, this liberty notion as a rule, does not pervade the hospitals. That applies to the period when the novel Part Cash was written.

At the present time a chafing against personal liberty does not exist in the case of a number of patients. Every letter they write must be handed to the judge or lawyer or friend of the patient, without interference on the part of the individuals in the hospital. There are so many persons in the hospital that a conspiracy is practically precluded. What interest is there on the part of state institutions to cultivate any activity that would resemble a

conspiracy? Everything works toward facilitation and protection of the patient, and as soon as the patient wants legal help or control, he can have it. Now at the present time the law sanctions a wholesale commitment which I think will gradually diminish as people will say that the voluntary commitment works sufficiently well and can be properly handled without too much complication. In that respect, I think it is excellent.

Dr. WILLIAM L. RUSSELL: I think it is safe to say that the prevailing opinion is that it is very easy to get into a hospital for the insane, and hard to get out. Just the contrary is the fact. It is not at all easy to get a patient needing treatment into a hospital for the insane. In the first place, the friends of the patient do not want him committed. The majority of the patients admitted into the institution for the insane year by year, have difficulty in getting in. In the private institutions I invariably find patients not committed, and whom it is my duty under the law, to have committed. When I inquired why they were not committed, usually it is the friends who would not have them committed. If the commitment is insisted upon, they are taken away and put in institutions not licensed or visited by state officials. It is a fact that it is not easy to get these patients in. The people of this state or country have the utmost respect for courts and their procedure. As Dr. Ferris has pointed out, in many instances this court procedure does not protect the patient. Two-thirds of the certificates on file do not show that the patient is insane.

Those are the papers on which the judge must act. In many cases the judge acts on those cases without further procedure whatever. He is not an expert on insanity, and it is a perfunctory duty on his part. The final duty devolves on the superintendent of the institution, and he is a better qualified person, who assists the judge. Now, why not have confidence in the superintendent, as much as you have in the judge?

I do not imagine that anybody here realizes that forty-five per cent. of the patients admitted to insane asylums are discharged to their homes and friends. A certain number of them come back again. Now this voluntary provision is a help, as they know they are being helped at the state institutions. When Dr. Hutchings said the patient he discharged was not insane, he said he meant the patient was not insane in the meaning of the law. It was advisable to have him go, because he could not keep him under

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- Rose, Flora, 811 E. State street, Ithaca, Home Economics Department, Cornell University.
- Rose, Mrs. Stephen, 527 W. Water street, Elmira.
- Rose, Mrs. Theodore C., 353 W. Church street, Elmira.
- Rosenbloom, Estelle, Elmira College, Elmira.
- Rosendale, Hon. Simon W., 325 State street, Albany, commissioner, State Board of Charities.
- Rosendale, Mrs. Simon W., 325 State street, Albany.
- Rosenfield, Benjamin, 421 W. Gray street, Elmira. Hebrew Ladies Benevolent Society.
- Rosenfield, Mrs. Benjamin, 421 W. Gray street, Elmira.

- Ross, Francis W., 1076 College avenue, Elmira.
 Ross, Mrs. Milton L., 357 Columbia street, Elmira.
 Round, Robert J., 312 W. Church street, Elmira.
 Rudd, Rev. Arthur B., 520 W. Church street, Elmira, rector, Grace Church.
 Rudd, Mrs. A. B., 520 W. Church street, Elmira.
 Russell, Martha M., Sloane Hospital, 447 W. 59th street, New York City.
 Russell, William L., 44 S. Church street, Poughkeepsie, medical inspector for State Commission in Lunacy.
 Rutan, Joel, Elmira.
 Rutan, W. R., 623 W. Water street, Elmira.
 Sabine, Miss Edith S., 960 Madison avenue, New York City.
 St. Agatha's Home, Nanuet.
 St. Ann's Home, Peekskill.
 St. Catharine's Hospital, Brooklyn.
 St. Joseph's Asylum, 89th street and Avenue A, New York City.
 St. Joseph's Orphan Asylum, Rochester.
 St. Malachy's Home, Rockaway park, New York City.
 St. Phillip's Home for Industrious Boys, 417 Broome street, New York City.
 St. Theresa, Sister, Hospital and Orphan Asylum, Ogdensburg.
 St. Vincent's Hospital, 12th street and Seventh avenue, New York City.
 St. Vincent de Paul Society, Particular Council of New York, 375 Lafayette street, New York City.
 St. Vincent de Paul Society, Superior Council of New York, M. J. Scanlan, treasurer, 51 Chambers street, New York City.
 St. Vincent's Male Orphan Asylum, Albany.
 Samuel Hazel, 110 Madison avenue, Elmira.
 Samuel, Sadie M., 110 Madison avenue, Elmira.
 Samuel, Stella, 110 Madison avenue, Elmira.
 Sanders, Dora M., 521 W. Fourth street, Elmira.
 Sanger, Wm. Carey, Sangerfield.
 Santee, Mrs. J. E. B., 206 Main street, Hornell.
 Sawyer, Philip B., Elmira.
 Saxe, Rev. A. J., 322 Baldwin street, Elmira.
 Sayles, Mrs. H. H., Elmira, Visiting Nurses' Association.
 Sayre, F. N., 208 Orchard street, Elmira.
 Sayre, Mrs. F. N., 208 Orchard street, Elmira.
 Scanlan, Michael J., 51 Chambers street, New York City.
 Schlieter, Gottfried, 416 S. Fourth street, Brooklyn.
 Schuyler, Louise Lee, 37 Madison avenue, New York City.
 Schwerin, Mrs. N. P., 146 W. 100th street, New York City, head worker, Bloomingdale Guild.
 Scott, B., 1082 Madison avenue, Albany.
 Scott, Joseph F., Elmira, New York State Reformatory.
 Serymser, Jas. A., 66 Broadway, New York City.
 Secor, Isabella A., 217 Maple avenue, Elmira.
 Seligman, Isaac N., Mills building, New York City.
 Severance, C. J., Mannsville, manager, Rome State Custodial Asylum.
 Schorer, A. R., 105 E. 22d street, Charity Organization Society, New York City.
 Schlitzer, Leon A., 126 Franklin street, Rochester, St. Joseph's Orphan Asylum.

- Shaffer, Mrs. E. M., 452 Riverside avenue, Elmira.
Shaffer, Newton M., M. D., 28 E. 38th street, New York City.
Shaljian, S. V., 310 E. Water street, Elmira.
Shanahan, Wm. T., Craig Colony, Sonyea, first assistant physician.
Shanahan, Thomas, Bath.
Shanahan, Mrs. Thomas, Bath.
Sheehan, Hon. Daniel, 140-142 W. Water street, mayor of Elmira.
Sheehan, Rev. W. F., Troy.
Sherman, P. Tecumseh, 15 William street, New York City.
Shove, Benjamin J., 365 Green street, Syracuse.
Schumann, Kate, manager, Brooklyn, E. D., Industrial School, 141 S. Third street.
Scollie, Mrs. J. N., 329 Boston avenue, Buffalo, Erie county placing out agent.
Scott, Joseph F., superintendent, Elmira Reformatory.
Simpson, Alison C., 121 Caldwell avenue, Elmira.
Simpson, Edna G., 121 Caldwell avenue, Elmira.
Simpson, Frances A., 121 Caldwell avenue, Elmira.
Simpson, Mary Louise, 121 Caldwell avenue, Elmira.
Simpson, Mrs. E. M., Albany.
Sisters of St. Dominic, 153 Graham avenue, Brooklyn.
Sisters of the Poor of St. Francis, 143 St. Ann's avenue, New York City, St. Joseph's Hospital.
Sittenfield, Mrs. Joseph, 109 High street, Elmira.
Skougaard, Jens, 64 W. 22d street, New York City, president, Norweigan Hospital, Brooklyn.
Slausen, S. D., 521 Union place, Elmira.
Slocum, Isla, 521 E. State street, Ithaca.
Smith, Arthur L., 28 Nelson street, Auburn, county superintendent of the poor.
Smith, Mrs. E. J., 310 Baldwin street, Elmira.
Smith, Howard Martin, 105 E. 22d street, New York City, assistant, New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor.
Smith, Mrs. Julia E., 723 N. First street, Elmira.
Smith, Mrs. Kendrick, 611 College avenue, Elmira.
Smith, Lillian, 510 W. Clinton street, Elmira.
Smith, Miss O. H., 650 Euclid avenue, Elmira.
Smith, Roy S., 611 College avenue, Elmira, secretary, Elmira Chamber of Commerce.
Smith, Rufus Daniel, Maple street, Richmond Hill, instructor in economics and statistics, Cornell University.
Smith, Stephen, M. D., 300 Central park, West, New York City, vice-president, State Board of Charities.
Smith, Wm. Alexander, 412 Madison avenue, New York City.
Smith, Mrs. Wm. C., 114 W. Market street, Elmira.
Smith, Mrs. Walter Lloyd, 222 W. Church street, Elmira, Women's Federation.
Snell, Mrs. Katherine B., Schenectady.
Solomon, Henry, 58 E. 65th street, commissioner of state prisons and vice-president, Montefiore Home.
Southwork, Rev. Fred. W., Horseheads.
Society for the Aid of Jewish Prisoners, Second avenue and 21st street, New York City.

- Spallen, Mrs. Anna M., 175 E. 68th street, New York City, New York Foundling Hospital.
- Speed, Bessie F., 911 E. State street, Ithaca.
- Speidel, Rev. Fidelis, 173 E. 3d street, New York City, president, St. Joseph's Asylum.
- Spencer, Robert J., Brooklyn.
- Spengler, Mrs. Jas., Sayre, Pa.
- Speyer, James, 24 Pine street, New York City.
- Spring, Edna E., 125 Caldwell avenue, Elmira.
- Squires, A. Edna, 221 W. Chemung place, Elmira.
- Stainton, Edna, 47 N. Pearl street, Buffalo, district visitor, Buffalo Charity Organization Society.
- Stancliff, E. E., 240 Lake street, Elmira.
- Stancliff, Mrs. E. E., 240 Lake street, Elmira.
- Stanislaus, Sister M., Peekskill, principal of school, St. Joseph's Home.
- Stanley, Rufus, Elmira, director, Omega Club.
- State Charities Aid Association, 105 E. 22d street, New York City.
- Steen, Miss Helen A., 20 Caldwell avenue, Elmira.
- Stebbins, Miss Margaret D., Cazenovia.
- Stern, Jeanette, Sage Hall, Ithaca.
- Stern, Ruth I., Sage Hall, Ithaca.
- Stephen, Harold M., 169 13th street, E. Salt Lake City, Utah.
- Stevens, Alice M., Ithaca.
- Stevens, H. M., 302 Stuart avenue, Ithaca.
- Stewart, Hon. Lispenard, 31 Nassau street, New York City.
- Stewart, Miss Lulu B., 607 W. Water street, Elmira.
- Stewart, Mrs. Sarah Vance, 152 Baden street, Rochester, superintendent, Social Settlement.
- Stewart, Hon. William R., 31 Nassau street, New York City, president, New York State Board of Charities.
- Stilwell, Mrs. Mary, 865 Lake street, Elmira.
- Stone, Ruth I., 55 Gaige block, Binghamton.
- Strang, Frances Thornton, Elmira, Elmira College.
- Strassburger, Peter F., 414 E. 6th street, New York City, St. Joseph's Asylum.
- Strong, Chas. H., 123 E. 78th street, New York City, president, Board of Managers, New York State Training School for Girls, Hudson.
- Strong, Mrs. Chas. H., 123 E. 78th street, New York City.
- Strong, Jay M., 357 S. Warren street, Syracuse, secretary, Associated Charities.
- Stowell, Mrs. Eugene, 710½ N. Main street, Elmira.
- Sullivan, Mrs. Chas. J., 316 E. Church street, Elmira.
- Sullivan, Mrs. D., 312 Lake street, Elmira.
- Sullivan, Elizabeth L., 719 Kenyon street, Elmira.
- Swarthout, Nellie, 362 Columbia street, Elmira.
- Swartwood, Mrs. Chas. B., 625 W. Church street, Elmira, Women's Federation.
- Swartwood, Elizabeth W., 411 E. Church street, Elmira.
- Swartwood, Willis J., 509 E. Church street, Elmira.
- Swartwood, Mrs. Willis, 509 E. Church street, Elmira.
- Swartz, Nellie S., 122 Pierrepont street, Brooklyn, district secretary, Brooklyn Bureau of Charities.
- Swan, William L., 461 W. 144th street, New York City.

- Taylor, Rev. M. A., 146 W. 71st street, New York City.
- Thompson, Edith A., 102 E. Hudson street, Elmira, assistant secretary, Chamber of Commerce.
- Thompson, Mrs. Merle Dow, 651 Euclid avenue, Elmira.
- Thompson, Norman J., 458 W. Water street, Elmira, treasurer, Industrial School, Advisory, Board Orphan's Home.
- Thompson, Mrs. N. J., 458 W. Water street, Elmira, second vice-president, Women's Federation.
- Thompson, Susan A., 351½ Columbia street, Elmira.
- Thurston, Richard H., 243 Lake street, Elmira.
- Tierney, Myles, 317 Riverside drive, New York City.
- Tice, Fanny, 518½ Pennsylvania avenue, Elmira.
- Tice, Florence, 518½ Pennsylvania avenue, Elmira.
- Tidd, Caroline G., 412 Euclid avenue, Elmira.
- Tidd, E. K., 412 Euclid avenue, Elmira.
- Tillinghast, C. W., care J. N. Warren & Co., Troy.
- Titus, Charles N., 458 E. Clinton street, Elmira.
- Titus, Mrs. Hattie E., 458 E. Clinton street, Elmira.
- Tomlinson, Frederick C., 471 W. Water street, Elmira.
- Toole, Edward J., 142 E. Water street, Elmira.
- Tower, Rev. Wm. Hogart, 175 Orange road, Montclair, N. J., assistant superintendent, Joint Application Bureau, New York City.
- Tower, Walter B., 101 Main street, Penn Yan.
- Towne, Arthur W., the Capitol, Albany, secretary, State Probation Commission.
- Towner, F. B., 309 E. Second street, Hornell.
- Tracy, A. H., J., 33 Willow Lawn, Buffalo, member of Board of Managers, State Agricultural and Industrial School.
- Tubbs, Frances B., 605 W. Clinton street, Elmira.
- Tubbs, H. K., 207 W. Hudson street, Elmira.
- Tubbs, Mrs. H. K., 207 W. Hudson street, Elmira, Women's Federation.
- Turck, Joseph H., M. D., 207 E. Church street, Elmira.
- Turner, Ada M., 329 Main street, Owego.
- Underhill, J. Delmar, 230 Echo place, New York City, St. Vincent de Paul Society.
- Ufford, Mrs. William M., 418 W. Church street, Elmira, member of Visiting Committee.
- Updike, A. N., 114 W. 2d street, Elmira.
- Vallier, Susan D., 19 W. Tupper street, Buffalo, district visitor, Charity Organization Society.
- Van Buren, M. Lillian, 557 Grove street, Elmira.
- Vander Beek, C. A., 44 Gib's street, Rochester.
- Vander Veer, A., 28 Eagle street, Albany.
- Van Duyen, E. S., 318 James street, Syracuse.
- Van Duzer, Kate, Elmira, Elmira College.
- Van Duzer, Ralph H., Horesheds.
- Van Wyck, Mrs. W., New York Foundling Hospital, New York City.
- Van Zand, Henry, 105 E. 22d street, New York City, investigator, Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor.
- Vincent, Sister Theresa, 175 E. 68th street, New York City, New York Foundling Hospital.

- Victor, Brother Ambrose, Westchester, New York Catholic Protectory.
Vinton, Mrs. H. W., 710½ Main street, Elmira.
Vogel, Philip S., 18 Livingston street, Saugerties.
Von Dohlen, Wm. H., 605 Monroe avenue, Rochester, superintendent, Rochester Orphan Asylum.
Von Dohlen, Mrs. W. H., 605 Monroe avenue, Rochester, Rochester Orphan Asylum.
Voorhees, Sherman, 408 N. Main street, Elmira.
Wade, Frank E., 546 Delaware avenue, Buffalo.
Wade, Miss Minnie B., 287 Fourth avenue, New York City.
Wade, Mable C., 210 Gregg street, Elmira.
Wadley, Mary E., 14 E. 142d street, New York City.
Waldron, John A., 155 Hamilton street, Albany.
Wagner, Dr. Chas. D., superintendent, State Hospital, Binghamton.
Wakeman, Arthur E., 72 Schermerhorn street, Brooklyn.
Walker, Ada C., Albany.
Wallace, Richard W., 234 Quail street, Albany, superintendent of inspection, State Board of Charities.
Wallace, Roy Smith, 282 Babcock street, Buffalo.
Wanamaker, Mrs. L. V., 738 W. First street, Elmira.
Wanamaker, Jennie J., 738 W. First street, Elmira.
Ward, Nelson M., 29 Argyle street, Rochester.
Ward, R. H., M. D., 53 Fourth street, Troy.
Wardlow, Mrs. S. D., Palmyra.
Wardell, Wm. T., 21 W. 58th street, New York City.
Warnecke, Anna, M. D., Newark, Wayne county.
Warner, Chas. H., 283 Rivington street, New York City.
Warner, Edwin J., 642 W. Water street, Elmira.
Warner, Iva L., 717 E. Buffalo street, Ithaca.
Warren, George W., 312 Irvine place, Elmira.
Warren, Mrs. George W., 312 Irvine place, Elmira.
Warren, Mrs. O. S., 500 Euclid avenue, Elmira.
Waters, Mrs. G. W., 360 W. First street, Elmira.
Waters, Jean, 360 W. First street, Elmira.
Waters, Mabel, 360 W. First street, Elmira.
Way, Bertha S., 152 E. First street, Corning.
Way, Mrs. Herbert Carlton, 316 Lake street, Elmira.
Webb, M. L., 501 William street, Elmira.
Weeden, W. L., Frankfort, superintendent, Western Inspection District, State Board of Charities.
Wellington, A. H., 57 W. 75th street, New York City.
Welshe, Mrs. Annie M., Auburn, State Prison for Women.
Wemple, Mrs. Edgar, 108 Fox street, Elmira.
Western New York Institution for Deaf-Mutes, 945 St. Paul street, Rochester.
Wey, H. D., 359 Main street, Elmira.
Wey, Mrs. H. D., 359 Main street, Elmira.
Weyer, Laura E., 517 William street, Elmira.
Wheat, Mrs. Lillian E., 201 Randall avenue, Elmira.
Wheaton, Miss Fannie A., 105 Columbia street, Elmira, manager, Home for the Aged.

- Wheeler, Herbert L., 12 W. 46th street, New York City.
White, Alford T., 40 Remsen street, Brooklyn.
White, J. F., 28 Lakeview park, Rochester.
White, Rev. Wm. J., 98 Richards street, Brooklyn, supervisor, Catholic Charities.
White, Mrs. Clara, 119 E. Henry street, Elmira.
White, Harriet A., 503 Grove street, Elmira.
White, Isabella, 514 W. Water street, Elmira.
Whitfield, William R., 270 Madison avenue, Albany.
Whittaker, Elizabeth L., Ithaca.
Whittelsey, Miss Mary E., 110 Ross street, Brooklyn.
Whitbeck, Mrs. Mary L., Spring avenue, Troy.
Whittier, Mrs. David L., 651 College avenue, Elmira.
Whitlock, C. E., 114½ Hoffman street, Elmira.
Whitson, Olive L., Ithaca.
Wicker, George M., 503 E. Buffalo street, Ithaca.
Wieland, Mrs. Florence F., Rensselaer Heights, Rensselaer.
Wilbur, Mrs. R. A., 606 W. Clinton street, Elmira.
Wilcox, Ansley, 684 Ellicott square, Buffalo.
Wilcox, William, Valhalla.
Williams, Faith, 191 Main street, Oneida.
Williams, Mrs. George R., 2 Fountain place, Ithaca.
Williams, Hon. John, Albany, Commissioner of Labor.
Williams, Mary C., 31 Church street, Hornell.
Williams, R. Lew, 407 E. Church street, Elmira.
Williams, Mrs. R. Lew, 407 E. Church street, Elmira.
Winispear, C. W., Newark, superintendent, State Custodial Asylum for Feeble-Minded Women.
Winner, Mrs. Leth, 523 W. Water street, Elmira.
Wood, Catherine R., Elmira.
Wood, George A., 122 Horner street, Elmira.
Wood, Hon. James, Mt. Kisco, president, Board of Managers, State Reformatory for Women.
Woodbridge, Alice L., 110 Second avenue, New York City.
Woodward, Gordon R., Lockport, secretary, Home for the Friendless.
Wrigley, Fred., 515 W. Clinton street, Elmira.
Wrigley, Thos., 515 W. Clinton street, Elmira.
Wurtenberd, Miss H. M., 343 Breckenridge street, Buffalo.
Wurzburgen, Elsie, 342 W. 88th street, New York City.
Wyckoff, Mrs. Ernest L., 113 E. Chemung place, Elmira.
Wyckoff, F. Liby, 113 E. Chemung place, Elmira.
Yergin, Rev. Vernon W., 101 Franklin street, Auburn.
Yorke, Wm. C., foot E. 26th street, New York City, superintendent, Municipal Lodging House.
Young Friends' Aid Association, 215 E. 15th street, New York City.
Young Women's Christian Association, Buffalo.

TREASURER'S REPORT.

NINTH CONFERENCE.

Receipts.

Contributions	\$1,219 00
Interest	24 61
Deficit*	96 51
Total	<u>\$1,340 12</u>

Expenditures.

Postage†	\$108 83
Printing and stationery	386 82
Stenographic and clerical services	383 77
Printing proceedings†	
Miscellaneous	343 58
Badges	41 03
Industrial exhibit	76 09
Total	<u>\$1,340 12</u>

FRANK TUCKER, TREASURER, IN ACCOUNT WITH NEW YORK
STATE CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

July 10, 1909..

Receipts.

Receipts, First Conference	\$604 68
Receipts, Second Conference	466 21
Receipts, Third Conference	934 50
Receipts, Fourth Conference	1,051 50
Receipts, Fifth Conference	1,066 40
Receipts, Sixth Conference	1,637 92
Receipts, Seventh Conference	2,112 38
Receipts, Eighth Conference	1,786 28
Receipts, Ninth Conference	1,243 51
Receipts, Tenth Conference	114 70
	<u>\$11,018 08</u>

* Exclusive of cost of printing and distributing Proceedings.

† Bill for printing Proceedings and postage for mailing same not yet received.

Expenditures.

Disbursements, First Conference	\$589 30	
Disbursements, Second Conference . .	471 25	
Disbursements, Third Conference . . .	952 94	
Disbursements, Fourth Conference . .	1,085 71	
Disbursements, Fifth Conference	1,024 09	
Disbursements, Sixth Conference . . .	905 65	
Disbursements, Seventh Conference .	1,777 32	
Disbursements, Eighth Conference . .	2,010 67	
Disbursements, Ninth Conference . . .	1,340 12	
Disbursements, Tenth Conference . . .	4 20	
		10,161 25
Balance		
		\$856 83

CONSTITUTION AND BY-LAWS OF THE NEW YORK STATE CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND COR- RECTION.

CONSTITUTION.

The objects of the New York State Conference of Charities and Correction are to afford an opportunity for those engaged in charitable and reform work to confer respecting their methods, principles of administration, and results accomplished; to diffuse reliable information respecting charitable and correctional work, and encourage co-operation in humanitarian efforts, with the aim of further improving the system of charity and correction in the State of New York. With this end in view the Conference will hold an annual meeting in the State of New York, at the time and place to be agreed upon at the preceding annual session, at which addresses shall be made, papers read, discussions carried on, and general business transacted in accordance with the by-laws of the Conference.

The Conference shall not, however, formulate any platform nor adopt resolutions or memorials having a like effect.

BY-LAWS.

I.

Membership of the Conference.

All who have an active interest in the public or the private charitable or correctional work in New York State are invited to enroll themselves as members of the Conference. No other tests of membership shall be applied and no membership fee charged, the expenses of the Conference being met by voluntary contributions.

II.

Officers of the Conference.

The Conference shall have the following officers, to be elected at the preceding annual session. with the duties herein respectively assigned to them:

1. A President, who shall preside over the sessions of the Conference, except when the Chairman of a Committee on Topics has charge of the meeting, or some other officer is temporarily called to the chair.

The President shall also be a member of the Executive Committee, and the Chairman *ex officio* thereof, and shall continue to be a member of the said Committee when his term as President has expired.

He shall have supervision of the work of the other officers and of the various committees in preparing for the sessions of the Conference, and shall have authority to accept resignations and to fill vacancies in the Committees on Topics of the Conference.

The President, with the assistance of the Secretary, shall so supervise the editing of the proceedings of the Conference.

2. Three Vice-Presidents, who shall, at the request of the President, assist him in the discharge of his duties, and in case of his inability to serve, shall succeed him in the order in which they are named.

3. A Secretary, who shall be *ex officio* Secretary of the Executive Committee, and who shall keep the records, conduct the correspondence and distribute the papers and documents of the Conference, under the direction of the Executive Committee. He shall assist the President in editing the proceedings of the Conference, and direct the work of the Assistant Secretaries.

4. Three Assistant Secretaries, who shall assist the Secretary of the Conference, at his request, and work under his direction.

5. A Treasurer, who shall receive all moneys of the Conference, and disburse the same upon vouchers duly certified by the Secretary, and audited by the Chairman of the Executive Committee.

III.

Committees of the Conference.

The Conference shall have the following Committees, with the duties herein respectively assigned to them:

To be elected by the Conference.

1. An Executive Committee which shall consist of the President and all ex-Presidents of the Conference *ex officio*, and of

five members of the Conference to be elected annually at the preceding session of the Conference. Three members shall constitute a quorum.

The Executive Committee shall have charge of the business of the Conference, during the interim between the sessions of the latter, and shall give attention to any matters referred to it by the Conference or these by-laws. The program of the Conference as arranged by the Committees on Topics, shall be subject to the approval of the Executive Committee.

2. The Committees on Topics, which shall each consist of not less than eight nor more than sixteen members, to be elected annually at the preceding meeting of the Conference.

These Committees shall have charge of the preparation of that portion of the program of the Conference which is assigned to them respectively, subject to the provisions of these by-laws and to the approval of the Executive Committee, to which they shall severally report as soon as practicable after their appointment.

They shall also have charge of the sessions of the Conference respectively assigned to them.

To be appointed by the President of the Conference as soon as possible after the opening of the session.

3. A Committee on Resolutions, which shall consist of three members of the Conference, two of whom shall constitute a quorum. All resolutions, except as herein otherwise provided, shall be referred to this committee without debate, and the committee shall, before the Conference adjourns, present such a report as seems to it desirable.

4. A Committee on Organization, which shall consist of seven members of the Conference, four of whom shall constitute a quorum. To this committee shall be referred all questions relating to the organization of the succeeding Conference, and the Committee shall present a report thereon as soon as practicable, and prior to the adjournment of the Conference.

5. A Committee on Time and Place, which shall consist of five members of the Conference, three of whom shall constitute a quorum. This Committee shall hear and consider any invitations that may be received from the various cities of the State, and shall present a report thereon as soon as practicable, and prior to the adjournment of the Conference.

IV.

Program.

The order of business at each separate session of the Conference shall be as follows:

1. The transaction of general business.
2. Report of the Committee on the topic of the session.
Not to exceed twenty minutes.
3. First paper on the program.
Not to exceed twenty minutes.
4. Discussion opened by a speaker selected for that purpose.
Not to exceed ten minutes.
5. General discussion of the subject presented by the paper.
Not to exceed ten minutes.

Speakers limited to five minutes each and no one to speak twice on the same subject except by vote of the Conference.

6. Second paper on the program.
Not to exceed twenty minutes.
7. Discussion opened by a speaker selected for that purpose.
Not to exceed ten minutes.

8. General discussion of the subject presented by the paper.
Speakers limited to five minutes each, and no one to speak twice on the same subject except by vote of the Conference.

9. Miscellaneous business.

V.

The by-laws shall continue in force unless amended by the Conference, after proposed additions or amendments have been submitted to the Executive Committee.

PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
THIRTY-EIGHTH ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE
COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS OF THE POOR OF
THE STATE OF NEW YORK, HELD AT RICHFIELD
SPRINGS, N. Y., JUNE 23, 24 and 25, 1908.

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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

THIRTY-EIGHTH ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE
COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS OF THE POOR OF
THE STATE OF NEW YORK, HELD AT RICHFIELD
SPRINGS, N. Y., JUNE 23, 24 and 25, 1908.

OFFICERS AND COMMITTEES.

ORGANIZATION FOR 1908-1909.

President.

W. H. TOWNSEND, Yates.

First Vice-President.

A. C. SUTHERLAND, Orange.

Second Vice-President.

C. E. DODGE, Chautauqua.

Secretary and Treasurer.

J. W. IVES, Wyoming.

COMMITTEE ON ORGANIZATION.

P. REDMOND, Jefferson.

WM. C. ACKER, Steuben.

HERBERT S. SISSON, Erie.

J. F. DORTY, Wayne.

C. CROSMAN, Genesee.

COMMITTEE ON LEGISLATION.

C. E. WEISZ, New York.

FRED P. DUNNAWAY, Jefferson.

R. S. WISNER, Ontario.

DAN C. GRUNDER, Allegany.

W. W. COLLINS, Newburg.

COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS.

JONATHAN BAKER, Suffolk.	GEORGE C. RUNDEL, Ulster.
J. P. CARMAN, Dutchess.	H. D. NOTTINGHAM, Onondaga.
WM. C. LAWRENCE, Westchester	

COMMITTEE ON TIME AND PLACE.

DAVID HITCHCOCK, Dutchess.	W. P. KYSOR, Cattaraugus.
R. C. QUINN, Chenango.	C. VAN ORDEN, Ulster.
H. W. POSSON, Orleans.	

COMMITTEE ON TOPICS.

C. V. LODGE, Monroe.	MISS H. IDA CURRY, New York
F. J. LATTIMORE, Cayuga.	MRS. FLORENCE GRANNIS,
WM. C. ROGERS, Albany.	Onondaga.

COMMITTEE ON FINANCE.

J. W. IVES, Wyoming.	JAS. J. GILMORE, Livingston.
	G. H. CRAFT, Genesee.

FRANK C. EASTMAN, Stenographer, Warsaw, N. Y.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE THIRTY-EIGHTH ANNUAL CONVENTION, JUNE 23, 24 and 25, 1908.

The Thirty-Eighth Annual Convention of the Superintendents of the Poor of the State of New York, held at the Hotel Earlington, Richfield Springs, N. Y., June 23, 24 and 25, 1908, was opened Tuesday morning, June 23d, with President Nichols in the chair.

The opening prayer was given by the Rev. Frank O. Hokirk of Richfield Springs, followed by the address of welcome, by the Hon. J. D. Reed, who spoke as follows:

MR. CHAIRMAN, GENTLEMEN OF THE CONVENTION, AND LADIES:

I observe that many of the people of Richfield Springs are here to greet you personally. Those whose usual vocations have taken their attention elsewhere send you their greetings and I have the very pleasant privilege of extending those greetings to you for them.

The duties which you have been called upon to perform for your respective counties are responsible. Few people are strong financially, and some of them are not even successful in the ordinary business transactions of life. None of them know how soon they may be overtaken by adversity and then be knocking at your doors for admission. And then it becomes your duty to decide which ones of them are worthy of public charity. Their condition is brought on more or less by reverses of one kind or another; and, in a few instances this may be said to be due, mainly, to weaknesses; one through his mental weakness, and others to advancing age, and physical infirmities; and in some we find a combination of these conditions; and it has been ordained that these unfortunate ones shall be provided for by the respective municipalities to which they belong by ties of residence. That has been the bore of humanity at all times. The Legislature of the State has been, almost continually since the organization of the State, trying to get a fair and just law covering the care of the unfortunates scattered throughout the State, and a system has resulted; but the real work falls upon the officer in charge. In him the people de-

mand kindness of heart, a well-balanced, sympathetic nature, firmness of character, strict integrity, superior business qualifications, and a pleasing and kindly manner; and when the individual is found possessing all those qualifications, you will have the man best fitted for the work, and good results will follow.

Now, Otsego county has been peculiarly successful in finding within its borders persons possessing those characteristics. I find the same is true in all other counties. Some of us can recall the selection of several superintendents of the first county home. Among the other holders of the office may be named Siler and Webber, of Westfield, and, lastly, Brown, of Maryland.

When Mr. Siler was mentioned in connection with this office in Democratic circles, the people remained silent until his nomination, and then gave him a flattering vote all through the county. Richfield felt it was slighted; their opinions were fully confirmed by the events which followed in his administration of that office. When his second term was brought to a close, and Webber was named for superintendent, our people were little acquainted with him, but, upon a careful investigation they found he possessed the desirable attributes to a very rare degree. He became our next superintendent and he ingratiated himself into the hearts of the members of the home and of the people even deeper than his predecessor had been able to do; and when his second term drew to a close a third term was mentioned; but, our people are adverse to third terms (laughter) and proved it later. Finally, the town of Maryland began carefully and cautiously but persistently to put forward John Brown. Richfield people had their ear to the ground. Immediately they caught the slogan and began to shout so that every town in the county could hear it, and when the convention assembled there was but one candidate, and that was Brown, and in him Otsego county realized their anticipations, and the affairs of the county home are being carried on even beyond their utmost expectations.

Now, gentlemen, you have all traveled the same route. Thus far you are of the kith and kin of the ones you are caring for.

Hence the standard set by our own superintendent is the standard by which we are studying your work, and from studying your work we find you are all measuring up to the standard.

The trusts reposed in you are important. To you is given the care, custody and welfare of those unfortunate persons whose relief is contributed to, in the main, by the general public upon a very pressing invitation received from the tax-gatherer. You are loved, respected and honored by your people because of the economical way in which you have discharged those trusts.

Now, Richfield, perhaps, may be said to be somewhat conservative because of all these facts; she has decided to accept you, gentlemen, and receive you into her councils; but, you are thus far without the necessary token to gain admission to her inner sanctuary; you are within her outer walls only, and, Mr. President, I am commanded by her people to present you with this key (hands large gilded key to the president) (Applause). This key will open to you the inner portals of our village and it will commend you to the confidence of our people. Use it for your comfort, pleasure and profit during your sojourn among us. When you have finished, you will kindly deliver it to the Superintendent of the Otsego County Home, if you wish, there to remain until some future occasion similar to this should require its production.

Now, the very highest ambition of our people is, that, when your stay is ended and you return to your homes, you have only kind regards for the town, and a desire to return, and that that desire may be realized at some future time. Then you will find the key in its usual place, where you will be instructed to leave it. It will be again delivered to you upon request, without ceremony.

We will now leave you to yourselves that you may perform those duties and pursue those pleasures which have called you to our village, with the assurance that our people are exceedingly pleased to meet you; that you are more than welcome among us, and that the town is yours, and, when you are through with it, of course, you may return it to us and we will receive it just as cheerfully, but not more so than we deliver it to you. (Applause.)

THE PRESIDENT:

MR. REED, AND THE PEOPLE OF RICHFIELD SPRINGS:

We thank you kindly for your words of welcome and your heartfelt welcome we gladly accept. (Applause.)

THE PRESIDENT:

You will now listen to the address of the president which will be read by the secretary.

Mr. Ives read the following annual address of the president:

SUPERINTENDENTS OF THE POOR OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK,
FELLOW WORKERS IN THE CAUSE OF CHARITY, LADIES AND
GENTLEMEN:

After a membership in this organization covering a period of five years, during which I have come to know, to respect and to love you all, the time of parting has arrived, the time when I must say good-bye and God-speed. In looking over the work which has been accomplished since I first became one of you, I find a great deal to commend. There are a great many evidences of advancement, of the intelligent application of business principles to our work. The responsibilities that have rested upon the members of this Association have been grave and serious and during all of the time of my connection with you, and especially during the last year, they have been met in a manly, intelligent, and straightforward manner.

There have been a great many pleasant things connected with and incident to my performance of the functions of superintendent of the poor. It is a cheering thing always to bring relief to the poor and needy, to lift up, if possible, those who are fallen, to ease the burden so far as possible of those unfortunates who are incapacitated to meet the duties of life alone. At the same time it is disheartening to know that so many of our brothers and sisters have been born into the world and have not been endowed with that measure of strength mentally and physically which enables them to withstand temptation, to carve out careers for themselves, but that, on the other hand, from incipient dependents they have passed down to complete degeneracy, to have it brought home to one, as it must in performing the duties of our several offices, that we are not making greater headway in the correcting of this most serious evil. I do not know that the proportion of dependents is upon the increase; it is certainly much greater than it ought to be. It is a pretty sad comment upon our times and upon our civilization that the number is so great. I have often thought that in our earnestness in doing our work, in

our desire to accomplish all that we can in the performance of our duties, that we sometimes overlook that which ought to be the real object to be attained, namely, to help as many of those as become charges to rise from the condition they are in rather than to encourage them to remain in it. Of course, you and I have seen a great many people — a great many have come to us — who were apparently actuated by as full and complete manhood as any member of the community, but as a general rule we must admit that of the great majority of them it can be truly said, though mournfully, that they have completely accepted the name as well as the condition of being dependent, and that the word “pauper” involves no element of disgrace in their minds. Doubtless it will be said that the solution of this question belongs to sociologists rather than to the superintendents of the poor. I grant that this is so, and yet a decent regard for mankind, a desire to promote the best interests of the State, forbids us to forget this condition and demands that we keep this object constantly in view.

At the time of my selection to fill the office with which you complimented me a year ago, I expressed in my feeble way the thanks which I felt to you for your action. I was then of the opinion that it came to me, not by reason of any merits of my own, but largely because of the location in which I lived and of the associates from our section of the State who were interested in my behalf, and now, at the conclusion of the year of my incumbency of the office as president, I am more than ever impressed with that view.

I desire to extend to each and every one of the members of this Association my most sincere and hearty thanks for the uniform kindness and courtesy which they have extended to me, and to assure them that so long as my memory lasts I shall hold in grateful remembrance the evidences of regard which they have manifested toward me.

Painful it is indeed to sever the relations which have grown up between us. I have found friends here whom I esteem most highly; whose friendship I have proved and which I still value as some of the choicest blessings of life. While it will not be my pleasure to meet with you in an official capacity hereafter, I hope that circumstances will permit me to attend the annual gather-

ings in coming years, to again gaze into the faces of friends and to reciprocate in some measure those acts of kindness which you have always shown to me.

While I shall be no longer with you as a superintendent, the county which I have in part represented will still and always, I hope, be represented here. The gentleman who has been chosen to succeed me as superintendent of the poor is a young man of rare intelligence and splendid business capacity, and I am sure you will find in him all that you have ever seen in me to commend, and many qualities that I do not possess.

I am proud as well as pleased to see that our old friend Patrick Redmond still abides with you, and I know that as in the past he has had, so in the future he will have, the affairs and interests of this Association very near to his heart, and that you can depend upon him in the future as you have in the past, to play his part and perform his duties manfully and well.

And now, at the end of my official life I again thank each and every one of you.

Mr. Ives then read the following letter of regret from Mr. A. C. Gates:

CANTON, NEW YORK, *June 20, 1908.*

MR. FREDERICK BRONNER, *Richfield Springs, N. Y.:*

MY DEAR SIR.—I regret very much that I shall not be able to attend the convention, as I am just recovering from an operation for appendicitis and am not strong enough to take the trip.

With best wishes for a pleasant week, I am,

Most respectfully,

(Signed) A. C. GATES,
Superintendent.

MR. LODGE:

Mr. President, I would like to say that I received word from the Hon. Thomas Osborne, that on account of class day at Harvard, which occurs to-morrow (and which necessitates his being present, owing to the fact that he is president of the day), he cannot get here until late Thursday afternoon; he assured me he would try and meet with us, and I assured him that we desired him to.

MR. WEISZ:

A year ago it became my very great pleasure to meet in this convention at Saratoga a man whom I considered a most valuable member of this Association. During the year I learned to know him better; I learned his qualities and his material manhood; and I rise simply to say that during the past two or three months death has knocked at our door and taken the Hon. Elbert E. Chamberlain, of the city of Buffalo. I wish to withhold any motion to adjourn until some member who may know more of our worthy brother shall speak to us of him.

MR. SISSON (Superintendent, Erie county):

I might, but I am totally unprepared for anything of this kind. I know that he was respected highly as a man; and I know that as a superintendent of the poor he was a success, and was a fine citizen in every way.

MR. WEISZ:

I rise to make a motion that we do now adjourn out of respect to our departed brother, and suspend further business of this session out of respect to him.

Mr. Weisz's motion was put by the president, seconded and carried unanimously.

MR. BROWN, Otsego county:

Mr. Chairman, the meeting is adjourned and I did not wish to bring anything before you until it had adjourned, but as I am one of the committee on entertainment I have been very much hampered in performing my duties by sickness so that I have not been able to be with the committee. I think they have arranged to entertain you on Friday with some things that have not been put on the program. If Mr. Wheeler is in the house I wish he would explain to the convention the object of the entertainment on Friday; I think he will invite you all to stay over to that entertainment.

MR. WHEELER:

Mr. Brown, and Gentlemen of the Convention —

MR. BROWN:

Mr. Wheeler is sporty — (laughter)

MR. WHEELER:

At the time this convention was reported to have decided to hold its next session in our town, it was proposed that during its sojourn here an afternoon's sport along horse-racing lines should be arranged. I, myself, became interested to some extent in that proposition with the result that I have procured to be advertised for Friday afternoon a series of horse races to take place at the Driving Park just southeast of this village, at 2 o'clock.

I would say this further: That those horse-races have been advertised mainly upon the proposition that the different members of this convention would be here and attend; otherwise, I do not presume, that, the races being called for Friday afternoon, we could get any considerable attendance from the countryside gentlemen.

Now, since these races have been called, it has been suggested that this convention is very liable to "break camp" and surrender the town to its original possessor and return to their respective homes before Friday afternoon arrives; I would say to you, if this is true, I do not think I will attempt to put through any series of horse races. If it is probable that this convention will remain in session long enough to warrant your presence on Friday afternoon, I will continue the advertisement and have the races.

MR. BROWN:

I wish you would state to the convention that you are to have at least three trotting and pacing races, and also some running races with a large entry in each and every class, and that it is one of the finest grounds — very beautiful; we have a nice grand stand and I am sure Mr. DeWitt will entertain you very nicely here; and I would ask all who wish to stay to rise. (Mr. Mabie, of Putnam county, was the only one to rise to his feet, and Mr. Wheeler immediately grasped his hand, saying that he was glad to meet one sport in the crowd.)

MR. BROWN:

Evidently you don't want the races. If that is true, we will not try to have them.

MR. WHEELER:

I would announce further, gentlemen, if you have any misgivings about the "anti-racing law," that I presume there are brilliant minds enough in this county to show you how to put through a little side bet. (Laughter.)

A VOICE:

Mr. Chairman, I wish to say that the gentleman from Monroe county may set the stake.

Convention adjourned to 3 p. m., after request from the Secretary, Mr. Ives, that all delegates register.

TUESDAY AFTERNOON.

PRESIDENT:

Will the convention please come to order? Mr. Ives, have you a notice to read?

Mr. Ives read the following announcements:

ANNOUNCEMENTS.

For the banquet this evening, dinner tickets will be issued to all the regular guests of the Earlington *without charge*. The invited guests and those of the delegates from the other hotels will be charged \$1 per ticket, and they may be obtained at the hotel desk at 4 o'clock this afternoon. If a guest of the Earlington, please apply for the ticket just the same, it being issued to you without charge, all others paying the nominal sum of \$1.

To-morrow afternoon is given up to the ladies, and the entertainment committee wish to announce that Canadarago Park has been rented for the occasion. Everything in the amusement line in that popular resort will be at the disposal of the delegates without charge. The boats, the rink and skates (roller skates is meant by this), the bowling alleys, the shuffle-board, and the hospitality of the park is yours. Messrs. Fox and Son will use every effort to make you comfortable. Any information concerning the afternoon will be furnished by Mrs. Elden or Mrs. Tolley. To-morrow evening the Giermann Orchestra of Ilion, consisting of fifteen men, will give a concert in the Earlington parlors and afterward dancing will be indulged in until 11 o'clock. The con-

cert will commence at 8 o'clock sharp. Several of the village people have been invited in and will do everything in their power to make the evening enjoyable.

FRED BRONNER,
Secretary.

THE PRESIDENT:

We will now listen to a paper — "Massachusetts Almshouses" — by Hon. William Hopewell, secretary of the Bradford Durfee Textile School, Fall River, Mass.

MASSACHUSETTS ALMSHOUSES.

MR. PRESIDENT, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN OF THE CONVENTION:

Did you ever hear of "Sockless Jerry?" Well, Jerry hailed from the Middle West, was a Congressman and a talker. He thought it absolutely necessary that Congress should know his opinion on all matters, both large and small. One day he would be talking about the armor-plate of a battleship and next day he would hold forth on the pay of the watchman in the gallery. Some of the members grew very tired of hearing Jerry, and they requested the steering committee to devise some means of squelching him, giving as the reason that if Congress was ever to adjourn, Jerry must first be stopped from talking. In the plot was the Speaker, who was that large man from Maine, Thomas B. Reed. When Jerry would try to get the floor the Speaker would look steadily over his head and recognize some one else. This went on for some time. Jerry got more and more mad until one day he jumped up and wildly waving his arms hollered out, "Mr. Speaker, M— M—, what am I here for?" The Speaker calmly looked him over and said, "Congressman Simpson, if you don't know how should I?" Now, unlike the sockless one, I happen to know why I am here. I am here to tell you something about which you all know more than I do; therefore, it behooves me to let fiction alone, stick to facts, yet try to make it as entertaining as possible, also brief, so as to leave time for my worthy friend, Mr. Wisner, to explain to you what I have been trying to say.

In Massachusetts we have no county almshouses; the only county institutions are jails and truant schools, and Fall River is the only large city in the world that has a jail (built ten years

ago, cost about \$200,000) and has never had a prisoner within its walls.

The almshouses in Massachusetts are valued at \$4,545,549.36. They number 197, and last year cared for 4,605 inmates, at a total cost of \$1,048,049, of which sum \$291,373 were salaries; the total receipts from supplies, etc., from the farms, outside labor and board of inmates, were \$301,646, making the net expense \$736,403. This is the lowest net expense since 1900, notwithstanding the present high cost of food, clothing, etc. This makes the per capita weekly cost a little over \$3. The least net cost of any one almshouse last year was \$212; the largest net cost of any one almshouse was \$171,500. These figures show better than anything else the wide range of almshouses in Massachusetts. The largest number of inmates in any one almshouse was 741; the smallest, 1; of the total inmates 456 were temporary and 2,782 were stated to have relatives in the cities and towns in which the almshouses were located. Friends or relatives paid for the board of 99 inmates. The farm acreages run from the largest, 350 acres, down to small garden plots, about one-half or two acres in extent. The salaries of warden and matron range from \$2,500 to \$350. Last year the total cost of repairs and improvements was \$67,515.

The greatest length of service by warden or matron up to the present time is twenty-six years; ten others have occupied their positions between twenty and twenty-five years; several others have served long terms and they, each and every one, have my sincere sympathy, for of all the trying positions of which I know none begin to compare with the warden and matron of an almshouse, where every inmate must be treated as especially worthy poor. In Massachusetts a little relief has come to wardens and matrons in the form of an opinion by the Attorney-General, giving the following as good law: "Every person shall, if able to work, be kept diligently employed in labor during his term as a pauper. If he is idle and does not perform such reasonable task as is assigned, or if he is stubborn and disorderly, he shall be punished according to the orders and regulations established by the directors or overseer of the poor." Formerly the great plague of wardens was the care of tramps. These were cared for in outbuildings connected

with the farms and the following figures will give some idea of the amount of trouble and care these worthy followers of Dusty Rhodes caused the keepers, and more especially their wives when the husband happened to be away. During the past six years tramps cared for at almshouses have steadily decreased from 34,564 in 1901, to 3,127 last year. This year not over fifty tramps will be reported. This is the result of legislation and close supervision on the part of the State Board of Charity.

ALMSHOUSE REQUIREMENTS.

Since the removal of the insane from the local almshouses, under the act of the year 1902, it has become the sole purpose of an almshouse to provide for the old, infirm, and crippled, and to care for temporary cases of poverty, chiefly women with one or more children.

Almshouse buildings should be of brick, so far as possible, and not more than two and one-half stories in height, and properly located, with reference both to distance from centers of population and to sanitary conditions. The quarters of the warden and matron should be in the center of the house, with a wing on each side for inmates, each wing having a large piazza or piazzas, with awnings for cover. There should be a reading-room, one or more sitting-rooms, a smoking-room, a library, and abundant opportunity for out-door exercise. Dormitories are rarely advisable. Rooms containing two beds are generally preferable to single rooms, not only as being conducive to good morals, but as tending to encourage habits of mutual help in cases of sickness or distress. There should be ample clothes-presses and linen closets. Corridors should be of good width, and the doors of corridors and sleeping-rooms should have transoms. All rooms should be unpapered. The stairways should be wide, with risers not more than six inches in height, and should be provided with hand-rails. Toilet-rooms and water-closets should be placed on every floor where there are sleeping-rooms. All plumbing should be open and well-trapped, and the bath-tub and water-closet should not be trapped together. The bath-tub should not be trapped above the floor, as this brings the tub too high for old people to use it with comfort or safety, and the tubs should be set at least one foot from the wall.

On the first floor should be sleeping-rooms for cripples and any other inmates unable to climb stairs. Structural provision should be made for the entire separation of the sexes, except at meals, at religious services, and, in some small almshouses, in the sitting-rooms. It is desirable that every part of the building should be equally heated, and in all but exceptional cases lighting should be either by electricity or gas. Gas jets should be placed high enough to be out of the reach of inmates. As a matter of protection against fire, double stairways should be constructed in the center of the building and at each end, for ready egress of the inmates. It is advisable, also, that a large bell be hung near the center of the house, with a rope reaching from attic to cellar, to give immediate warning in case of discovery of fire. The house should be so constructed as to provide for as much window ventilation as possible, and should be otherwise ventilated as well. It has often been demonstrated that fire escapes are almost useless because the old people cannot handle themselves handily enough to use them.

ECONOMICAL VALUE OF ALMSHOUSES.

(By the State Board of Charity.)

In the cases of smaller towns of the Commonwealth having but few almshouse inmates, the Board has often suggested consolidation with other towns for the purpose of maintaining an almshouse in common; and in some instances it has seemed well to advise that an almshouse having but one or two inmates for several years in succession be discontinued, and that its inmates be provided for in families. Such counsel, however, would not be given in the case of large and prosperous communities. Within a few months, the town of Arlington, with a population, according to the last census, of 8,603, and a valuation of over \$10,000,000, sought the advice of the Board with reference to the matter of discontinuing its almshouse—a building in good condition, well managed, and having an average of five to seven inmates for several years past, with a net average yearly cost of about \$1,775. The inquiry of the Arlington authorities had reference chiefly to the question of economy. The Board in its reply stated that in its judgment the result would not be economical, and cited two noteworthy examples:

First, the case of the town of Brookline. This town, with a population of 6,000, appropriated the sum of \$9,000 for the support of the outside poor (the town being unprovided with an almshouse); and with every attempt to reduce the number of paupers during that and the succeeding year, by applying the labor test, making a careful investigation of cases of pauperism, and other methods, no less than 355 persons remained on the pauper list. The town built an almshouse to accommodate thirty-five inmates, at an expense of \$12,000. Within a year after it was opened the number of persons relieved fell to fifty-three, with four inmates at the almshouse. Similar conditions have continued ever since; the population of the town has more than doubled, but the appropriation for the support of the poor is no larger.

The second example referred to was that of the town of Stockbridge. Between three and four years ago, this town, which up to that time had been providing for its poor in families, erected an almshouse, at a cost of \$6,700. At the beginning of its construction the town was reported to be fully supporting eighteen persons, who, with a single exception, when the opportunity was offered them to become inmates of the almshouse, declined to avail themselves of its privileges, went to work, and became self-supporting.

The Board, having in mind the additional fact that Arlington has no town hospital to provide for the care of its sick and insane poor, who can be well sheltered and treated in its almshouse, advised that the town would best consult its own interests, and provide most economically and satisfactorily for its poor, by retaining its present almshouse. Arlington has since closed its almshouse.

It should be understood that in the cases of small towns the Board continues to urge the policy, advocated for many years, of combining and maintaining an almshouse in common for the support of their poor.

Very recently the overseers of the poor at Northampton asked the opinion of the Board regarding the advisability of legislation to provide for the establishment of an almshouse for the entire county of Hampshire, to be maintained by the county commissioners, and to be known as the Hampshire County Almshouse-Hospital. The Board replied as follows: "The Board decidedly

favors the plan of combining two or more town almshouses for the purpose of maintaining them in common, and has advocated this plan in successive annual reports, but whether an arrangement of this sort would be practicable for a city with the situation and surroundings of Northampton is open to serious question. However this may be, the Board is decidedly of the opinion that it would be inadvisable to establish by law an almshouse for the entire county of Hampshire. The county is too large for such a purpose, and the proposed almshouse would contain a greater number of inmates than it seems advisable to place under a single management, and, besides, a considerable proportion of them would be removed too far from their former homes and their relatives. Also, it is very much to be doubted whether the duty and responsibility of caring for town dependents should be removed from the hands of the local overseers and vested in the county commissioners." Hampshire county has a total population of 62,227. Paupers average seventeen and ninety-two-one-hundredths to the 1,000, not counting vagrants.

Total number of paupers in almshouse last year, ninety-four.

THE PRESIDENT:

The discussion of Mr. Hopewell's paper will be opened by Mr. Wisner, of Ontario county.

MR. WISNER:

Mr. President, Gentlemen and Ladies of the Convention: I do not think I can add anything to this paper; it is a very able paper. The only thing I can recommend in it is the way they have gotten rid of tramps. I wish we could do the same thing in our State. I do not think I can add anything else.

THE PRESIDENT:

Any other remarks?

MR. LODGE:

Mr. President: I do not like to let this paper go by without having a little further discussion on some points, and that one point has just been raised by Mr. Wisner.

The tramp problem, as I have said before in our conventions, in my mind, is a question of providing and caring for them. If we

provide a place for tramps and receive them as they come along, we will just as surely have them as the sun rises and sets; just so sure will they be with us every night and every morning. If you absolutely refuse to care for them they disappear. We tried that in Monroe county for a number of years, and we used to spend large sums of money in caring for the tramps. We tried arresting a few and they absolutely refused to keep them — arresting a few, and we have the great line of the New York Central and the Erie running through our country.

I was also interested in the matter of getting some of these constitutionally tired people to work about the almshouse. When I was keeper of the almshouse I had a man by the name of Jack McCulloch. The foreman of the farms says to me, "I can't get that big lazy fellow to do a thing." I took the fellow down on the farm and says to him, "Jack, here are some beets that I want you to hoe." He says, "I can't do it." I says, "You can; get at it." I watched him and he hoed five feet all right. "Now," I says, "Jack, you have got to hoe a row of those beets before you can have any supper." Then, unconsciously, I went over to the other side of the farm. I mistrusted something, and I went back, and found that the fellow had hoed up over a hundred feet of beets. I asked him what he did that for, and he said he could not see. I kept wondering whether I should let that fellow beat me out. Finally, the matron said the floors were all dirty, and could I find a man to carry water for her. I immediately thought of Jack, and I had the foreman get a barrel ready, and I gave Jack two pails, and I says, "Jack McCulloch, you don't get a thing to eat unless you fill those two barrels with water." He doubled up his hands and said, "I've got the rheumatism and I can't carry water." I said, "They are just right, they are just like hooks, the pails won't come off." We got him to carry water all summer. I would like to hear from others.

DR. HITCHCOCK:

I want to say something and I am hardly prepared to say it either. Mr. Hopewell cast a little reflection on the part of Massachusetts in which I lived. I lived in Massachusetts until I was twelve years old, and, if I remember rightly, the poor were farmed out. They did not have any tramps because no one was

willing to give them anything to eat. In Poughkeepsie, I always say, "Give them something to eat; if you turn them away you are going to make thieves of them. Give them something to eat and set them to work."

MR. HOPEWELL:

While we are talking about the West Hill I may just as well say something as it occurs to my mind. There is a woman in our town who never got married. She had quite a little money, and people used often to ask the other women around there why she never got married, and they invariably replied, 'because nobody ever dared to ask her.' I think it is about the same way with the tramps in West Hills; the reason they had no tramps there was because they did not dare to tackle the hills up there.

MR. REDMOND:

I will take some exceptions to Mr. Hitchcock's remarks about feeding tramps. It doesn't make any difference whether you feed them or not. They will call two to each one that you feed. The city of Watertown has not spent one cent on tramps this year. As far as our inmates at the county house are concerned, any inmates committed from the city of Watertown that are able to do anything are expected to do it, and the county superintendent of the poor has instructions from the board of charities of the city of Watertown, that any inmate able to work must work when asked, and if he doesn't give him the road; do that and I'll guarantee that he will not be recommitted back to the almshouse. Tramps—we haven't any. I remember the time when I was elected overseer of the poor my tramp bill was five or six hundred dollars. Since the board of charities was organized we have given the tramps such a chilly reception that they count Watertown out and go up through Canada.

MR. HITCHCOCK:

Many a man has come to me from Monroe county; I know it by the shoes he wears. Lodge is the most liberal man in the State; he pays their fares and sends them along the State.

A GENTLEMAN:

I would like to ask the superintendents what you are going to do when a man comes to your door along at 8 or 9 o'clock

at night, with the thermometer twenty degrees below zero? Up in our county we give him lodging and breakfast and send him out in the morning. Some of them are worthy and it does not seem to me it is human to turn away a man that is worthy. We haven't the heart to do it up in our county and I don't think it is the right thing to do.

MR. LODGE:

Mr. President, I do not want to be talking here so much, but I have just got to say that we do this with them: A man in that situation is not turned away, but he is taken in, and is given something to eat, and a place to sleep, and kept until morning, and, if that man is a good, able-bodied man he is taken to the justice of the peace and sent to the penitentiary, and then he does not come to you.

MR. WISNER:

In our county sometimes they are arrested and taken before a justice of the peace and he commits them to the county house for thirty to ninety days. What are you going to do in such a case?

MR. WEISZ:

In New York we chase them beyond the line, and if they stay with us three days we send them to the almshouse; they are bound to work breaking stone up on the hills; we give them something to do and something to eat, and when they won't work we don't give them anything to eat. We do turn them over to the Charity Organization Society to give them work sawing wood for a day and then give them something to eat. We do not encourage giving them lodging. When they come down to our office I usually give them an order to clear the city, and if they fall into the hands of the police they take their chances. If I have a man who comes up, who is worthy, we send him to his home, if we can find out from the authorities where he belongs. If he misrepresents his case to us, we do the other thing. We have been trying for the last two years to have the State Board do the work, and we are very thankful for it.

MR. WISNER:

I saw by the New York papers last winter where so many were fed; was that private charity?

MR. WEISZ:

It is private charity and does not come under our supervision. We take hold of it some times. We have one man who has taken it upon himself to feed the school children on Green street at the noon-hour. I believe this is done now among other people — feeding the children to give them strength to do their work, when they return to school, that they are obliged to do while they are there.

As far as tramps are concerned, we chase them; but we have a good many poor men who line up on the bread-line, who are obliged to do it by reason of the financial conditions of the country and that thing has increased to a great measure. Our parks are lined with people who have become distressed because of the financial conditions. There is no work, and what work there is is readily grasped by men who are always willing to work. A man who will not work when it is offered him is shown over the city limits.

MR. HITCHCOCK:

Isn't the outdoor relief in New York supported by private charity?

MR. WEISZ:

There is no outdoor relief in the department of the city of New York.

MR. HITCHCOCK:

How do you get your funds?

MR. WEISZ:

From the Board of Estimate.

MR. COLLINS:

Weisz says they chase the tramps; and I want to tell you right here, there are just as many tramps chased back to New York as they chase out.

MR. WEISZ:

I wish to qualify that; the tramps are not our people, and that leads me to another question, if Mr. Hopewell will allow me to ask it: How long does it take to gain a settlement in Massachusetts, in any town or in the State?

MR. HOPEWELL:

Three years.

MR. WEISZ:

I have heard it said, it was fourteen years. I met in Baltimore the Superintendent of Charities and I was stating the subject of charities; and I remember Mr. Levi D. Holden read a paper on "Passing the Fellow Along." This has grown to be a very serious question with the city of New York. Everybody seems to be passing the fellow along until he gets to New York. I particularly refer to Connecticut, where the fellow on the other side of the line has the nerve to unload them at our very door on 26th street. He comes in and says, "Here are a couple of gentlemen who belong to your town." We find that they belong in Connecticut. We load them up and put a policeman on the box with the driver and send them to the train for home.

This passing-on question has gotten to be a very serious one; it is a question that ought to be solved for the benefit not only of this State and every county in it, but to the benefit of the other States who are suffering equally with ours.

I trust before the session closes some solution may be arrived at whereby we may join hands with the charities of Baltimore, who are working very hard to gain some settlement of that very question. They have been troubled very much by the insane of various States that have been sent into Maryland.

MR. HITCHCOCK:

Lodge accuses me of talking too much about this question. The tramp business affects me quite a little; I might be on the road, myself, some time. I don't want a tramp coming into my town to make a settlement; that is why I ship them along. And that is what you do. What is the poor devil going to do? He has no one to love him or care for him. If you should take him, and he should die there would be no record but his death, because you don't want them. If we have a right, as citizen brothers, to take them in and take care of them I would like to take them in. They ought to have a place to lie down and die in peace. If you try to put them in the State poorhouses they will run them out of there. What are you going to do with them? They send them on.

There has got to be a home provided for them. Send them to that home and take care of them. If we do this, it would not hurt the State of New York. These people have got to have some place to lay down their heads when they get ready to die. Instead of that they die on the road. We put them there because we are afraid it will cost us something.

MR. COLLINS:

Mr. Hitchcock's statement does not apply to what I meant. The tramp is the able-bodied man.

They should be sent back to the farm for one year and made to work and send their earnings to their families. Every one is able to work.

MR. HITCHCOCK:

Not when he has been a year in the State.

MR. REDMOND:

I would like to say one more word. We have experience with vagrants in our town. Our judge is a fine-hearted man; if a man comes before him and says he is seventy-six when he is only forty-six, he sends him to the poorhouse. We had one man who was sent to the county house for six months and when his time was out our superintendent told him it was time for him to go, and he would not go. He led him by the shoulder out into the road and told him to go on. He came back, and, rather than to have any trouble, he had him arrested, and he has had three months in the penitentiary. If you do not make them work they will run over you and you have got to keep them down with an iron will. I do not mean the old men. I will help them out as much as anybody. I do not think we ought to help a big, strong, able-bodied man. Farmers in our county are selling their farms. I know of three or four big, able-bodied men that said they could not find work. I knew of farmers on that road that were looking for help and could not find it. I told them, and one of the men says, 'Do you think I am going to work for \$25 a month on a farm? I guess not; I am going to work in the city.' It is not the old men that Mr. Hopewell refers to; it is the young, able-bodied men.

MR. POLLARD (Keeper Broome County):

I have been keeper of the Broome County Almshouse for nearly five years; and we are on the Erie road and its branches; and, when I first went there we were bothered with a great many tramps. If a man came along and we asked him what he was doing, and he said he was looking for work, nine times out of ten he would be started in. If he was a strong, able-bodied man, and spent his money for drink, I sent him on, but if he was old and feeble, I kept him. We send the young men right down to Binghamton. We haven't had five tramps a year.

We have with us here to-day, a man who is secretary of the Binghamton Board of Trade, and I would ask you, Mr. President, for the privilege of the floor for Mr. Gitchell.

THE PRESIDENT:

If there is no objection.

MR. WEISZ:

I do not want to object, but, at this time, I think we ought to proceed under the regular heading and consider this question. Under the proper heading we can take that matter up for consideration, and extend the privileges of the floor to the gentleman from Binghamton, or any other gentleman in the State.

BROOME COUNTY KEEPER:

The reason is that Mr. Gitchell can't stay over until the last day, and I think he might say a few words to us.

MR. GITCHELL:

I am the gentleman referred to, and I will be here all the afternoon, and will be pleased to have the other subject disposed of.

MR. BROWN:

I was very much amused with the remarks from the gentleman from the Broome County Almshouse with regard to sending on tramps. I think I have received a lot of them. I think some of them have been sent to us from Broome county; and I do not think it is right for the superintendent of the poor of one county to pay the fare of some poor man, unable to work, to become a poor dependent upon some other county. I believe it is the duty

of that county, if he is not a resident of that county, to take him and care for him, and I hope I shall not be guilty of sending some poor man, unable to work, unable to walk, to some other county and make him a burden upon them, and I hope the superintendents of the poor will never have to be guilty of placing in the hands of the railroad company a sum for the removing of some poor person to some other county to be a burden upon them. I believe it is our duty to feed those who need to be fed; and I would rather feed twenty unworthy than to turn one worthy one away. And when you see an old man tottering out without clothes enough to keep him warm, I believe it is our duty to take him and keep him and care for him, and I shall do it as long as I am superintendent of Otsego county.

A GENTLEMAN — LEWIS Co.:

I believe this is one of the most vital questions we have had before us in five years. I believe it will do us more good to talk upon this subject nearer to our hearts. I believe just as the brother does — that it is better to feed twenty or a hundred than to turn away one worthy poor man. In our county, when I became superintendent of the poor, there was not a marker to a grave. I urged upon the superintendents of the poor to get markers. It does not cost the county but a little money, and we should give them a decent burial, as well as we can.

A VOICE:

I am willing to bury them.

MR. LODGE:

Let's go back to the first question. We are not talking about that class of men. We are talking about the men who are able to work. The superintendent of Monroe county has not sent a man out of his county except he knew he was sending him to his home. I would very much dislike to be charged with a lack of generosity. My cost of sending tramps away to Europe was a little over \$400.

A SUPERINTENDENT:

The tramps I was speaking of were where they were given transportation and did not want any, but took the road for themselves.

We sent a man to Oneonta last winter and he fell into the hands of Mr. Brown. I went up to see about it; I offered to take him back and make him a State charity.

MR. BROWN:

I couldn't make him.

A GENTLEMAN:

Mr. President, I have listened with a good deal of interest, and it seems to me these men are of two distinct classes: one, the able-bodied tramp, who is perfectly able, physically, to earn his own living but who will not do so, and will not do it as long as he is supported by you. In order to get rid of him it seems to me some action should be taken by the superintendents. If the State were acting in the matter the tramp would go to Pennsylvania or Ohio. Now, if they come on Saturday, late Saturday night, I think you will agree with me that they are not hunting work at nine o'clock at night. If you have a wood-pile compel them to do some work before they have their meal; they probably won't have a chance to take themselves away before you can take care of that.

Let us turn, for a moment, to the other class—the old and disabled men. They need something more than a meal. They come from somewhere. Now, the first thing is to give them a meal and then let them go to the next town, but take care of them until we can find out from where they come and give them what they need. In my own position some time ago, in a distant State the man or woman was taken care of until the references were looked up and then given transportation; but, surely, the able-bodied men in these counties should not be allowed to go on living from place to place simply because some one will give them something to eat.

THE PRESIDENT:

Any more remarks upon this subject? The next on the program is a paper by Alfred J. Masters, probation officer of Monroe county, "Probation in Relation to Non-Support Cases." The discussion of this paper will be opened by D. W. Hitchcock, superintendent city poor, Poughkeepsie.

PROBATION IN RELATION TO NON-SUPPORT.

By ALFRED J. MASTERS, *Parole Agent for Rochester City and Monroe County.*

MR. MASTERS:

Scanning with broad-gauge vision the horizon of the world's kaleidoscopic doings, one cannot but feel that this is indeed a glorious era. In every department of the world's work improvements shine forth, and in nothing is this onward and upward trend of thought and action more marked than in the standard set for uplifting the unfortunately dependent people. For example, note the social settlements, the play-ground leagues, fresh-air societies, free medical attendance for public school children, and lastly, but not the least, the system of probation established in our criminal courts for the purpose of working out the ultimate salvation of men and families, for the family is the unit of civilization and man is the head of the family.

Ages back, even from the very Garden of Eden, law of right and justice demanded its pound of flesh. Physical punishment had its vogue, and still has it in some places. Confinement had and has its vogue. Banishment had a brief day. The crime did not fit the punishment always, but always the ruling powers so figured it that the punishment fitted the crime. Men were once executed for larceny; now their life pays the forfeit for one crime in this great State, murder, first degree. So, by gradual evolution, law's punishment is made lighter with the progress of civilization.

But it was not until comparatively recent years that the expounders of the law thought out a system whereby an offender might be reclaimed by giving him his liberty, under restrictions, which had for their corner-stone his sense of honor and manhood. Some thought it veriest theory, impractical and absurd. As well, they sneered, remove the surrounding and detaining walls from prison. Yet, in a brief time, their sneers have been turned into applause and indorsement, for the application of the theory has proven wonderfully successful and beneficent.

However, my sub-topic pertains only to non-support cases, and I must refrain from digressing into the philosophy of the system. Two points are involved in the discussion of my topic, economy and reform.

Let us begin at the first, viz. economy. In March, 1901, I was appointed probation officer for the county of Monroe, and in July, 1906, was made city probation officer. During the first year several non-support cases were submitted to me for experiment. Up to that time it was a profound question with Rochester police magistrates how successfully to punish this class of offenders, for in punishing them their innocent families were also punished. A prison sentence was a flat failure, unless in extreme cases. A chasm was created in the family which could not be bridged. A blot was left for life on the married state of husband and wife; he unforgiving; she repentant; their children shamed and disgraced.

It was then determined to parole a few of these negligent husbands in my custody to try out the system. It worked splendidly. In the first year several families were united and the county was saved \$800 by actual figures.

How did it operate? Very simply, indeed. Prior to that time husbands convicted had to give a bond of usually \$500 to support their families for a year, or else spend six months in prison. Few could give the bonds and they went to prison. Some gave bonds and, when the year expired, fled.

Under the new order of things a sentence is imposed, as an alternative for a bond, but execution of it is suspended by the court, pending the good behavior of the delinquent while in custody of the probation officer.

So long as the offender works and supports his family, he is immune from punishment. If he fails in his duty he is warned by the probation officer not to lapse again; if he persists in his failure, he is haled into court, told of his lack of appreciation for leniency and is committed to prison for six months, but these cases are comparatively few, not more than a small per cent. of the persons released on parole since the local system was established having been brought into court again for sentence.

During the year 1907, we took on probation 229 persons, of whom sixty-six were non-support offenders. These sixty-six were those unable to give bonds, though willing to reform. They paid to me for the support of their families, \$4,419. This was a direct saving to the county and city. So far this year I have received over \$3,000 from delinquent husbands and fathers.

Now for the reform side. These sixty-six men were saved the blot of prison, their families were saved from disgrace and the husband and father, instead of being in jail, was at home to foster and care for them and give them the benefit of his society, whether that be much or little. Besides, the encouragement it gave the father to be a man, the opportunity to see and learn by observation and advice, the value placed by law upon his mere word of honor, all combined in the reformatory effect sought.

Many a family quarrel, resulting in a non-support warrant, has been investigated and settled quietly out of court by the system of probation. Oftentimes we find the husband not all at fault. Sometimes the wife has neglected her home duties, and the husband, becoming discouraged and careless, neglects his duty. Then it is that the probation officer gives both a little "heart-to-heart" talk and some sound advice as to their duties, with the result that a better understanding between husband and wife has been effected, a new start made and peace, prosperity and honor are the rewards.

One of the elements of success in the system is the veil of secrecy which the probation officer throws around these cases. When discordant husbands and wives feel they must tell their inmost secrets in the hope of a solution of the troubles without fear of disseminating it, they often open channels which make for a simpler method of remedy. Interesting reading, indeed, would often be furnished by a perusal of the reports of the drawing out of the history of some of the men who are freed on conditions, but those records, coming from the very well-springs of our community, are sealed and must remain sealed.

Permit just a few words on the task imposed on the probation officer. At present there are 120 persons on the parole records. Keeping systematic track of them is a work of no little magnitude. To ascertain that each one is prompt, and to cheer him on requires patience, balance and knowledge of each and his shortcomings, and sometimes severity is required as well, besides absolute impartiality. Furthermore, a stern fulfillment must be demanded of all, for the example of laxity by the probation officer toward one will spread and the basis of the system, which is control, is weakened sadly. Pleas, promises or influence should have no bearing toward a delinquent. His punishment should be

swift and certain. It begets profound respect in others likely to be uncontrollable.

No one familiar with the parole system in Rochester and Monroe county doubts its advantages. Those who have studied, pulpit, press, bar and philanthropists, indorse it unreservedly. Instead of making criminals of trivial offenders, we find 60 per cent. at the expiration of their probation are made better, self-respecting, thrifty and law-abiding citizens.

And we, the coworkers under the system, have the moral satisfaction of realizing that we have done something toward the betterment of mankind and the uplifting of the community.

DR. HITCHCOCK:

Through the kindness of Mr. Lodge I am permitted to come up here and make a few remarks. He is always looking out for me. He wrote me and inquired of me, and I wrote back and told him I had the rheumatism. (Laughter.) He said he thought I could talk as well if I was lame.

This probationary sentence — If a man does not support his family, the matter is brought to the courts and they generally suspend sentence, and the man is forced to pay a certain amount to his family every week. I do not know of any other way. If he can support his family, it is better than for us to do it. As a whole, we are all studying economy; and, it seems to me, it is about as bad a punishment as you can give him. If he does not support his family he has to go to jail. The stigma is just the same, but if he is arrested and told he has got to spend three months in jail, if, at any time, he fails to support his family, I don't know but he deserves it. And it is the man with the largest family that we have the most trouble with. I have a man in Poughkeepsie who is a member of our church, and he is a member of every church in the city. I guess he is on his second tour now. A pastor of one of our churches came to me the other day, and said: "Dr. Hitchcock, I have a very poor family; I wish you to do something for them." I asked him the name of the family and he told me the name of this very man. I showed him my books, and how long he had been on the books and how much I had done for him. I told him he had gone the round of the churches and was going around again. I asked the

pastor how long he had been preaching there and he said two years. I says, "He has just got around to you on his return trip." (Laughter.)

With a good many people, they think the superintendent has got poor judgment; and they come to him and tell him how poor the man is; they think the superintendent should take up with the family, and want some one to go before the court and make a complaint, and put the children in some family, so they can tell the man that "if you don't do so and so, you will have your family all broken up." That is what makes us so much work. I have taken lots of cases where we had numbers of children put in homes, and within a year I have had a man come to me and say, "I will take the family back and support them," and he does. You want to have some one to make this complaint and have the family committed to the almshouse; let the man go around the street and sleep where he has a mind to. He wants the family so he can send the little children out on the street to beg. What are you going to do with them? You may take three baskets of groceries down and they will suffer just the same. I had a man come to me and tell me of a man who was being supported by us, and he showed me a card on which it said, "You are invited down and chip in for beer." I found I had furnished the grub for that party. The children are ten times better off in the hands of friends than in the hands of parents who do those things. That is where the children learn vice. Send them where they will not see those things. When they are little children growing up step by step — that is the way to do it; let the home take care of them.

As far as this suspended sentence is concerned, there is no other way we can do with them; probationary,—that is a good thing. If you join the church you have got to go a certain length of time. If you join a secret society they have spotters out watching you. We are all made about alike — "backsliders," some of the time — take the children away; get some one to make a complaint and take them and put them in our homes where they can be cared for properly. (Applause.)

THE PRESIDENT:

Any other remarks?

HON. HOMER FOLKS:

I am afraid Mr. Master's paper was not heard all through the room. I am very sorry that was the case, because I think he presented a very interesting statement of the matter in Rochester in the way of securing money from the husbands who will not support their families. That seems to me an exceptional record. The same plan is being tried in the city of New York, and 47 per cent. of the men convicted for non-support are placed under the oversight of the probation officers and required to pay a certain amount per week.

The point I would like to emphasize is this: that you cannot have a successful probation system without a competent probation officer. The secret of success in Rochester is the personality and faithfulness of the probation officer, and his skill in handling, and his good sense in dealing with the men. In some places this system is not considered to be a success.

I want to call your attention, therefore, to the fact that at the last session of the Legislature a bill was passed, and became a law, permitting the boards of supervisors to appropriate and pay the salary of a probationary officer. I think, in some cases, the board of apportionment unite with them and pay the salary of a probation officer in the police court. That, I think, would be a good scheme, saving the payment of money, and also in preventing the necessary commitment of children who are charged with being disorderly children or truants, but who, under the supervision and friendly aid of a devoted probation officer — with that assistance he can go to the families and aid them better than any other man. The larger minds that are needed to properly care for certain classes of the poor, especially the sick, can be had through a wiser use of the probation system. (Applause.)

MR. LODGE:

I would like to add that Mr. Masters is so modest in his statements that he has neglected to tell about a large number of cases we never let go to trial at all in Rochester. He will get the husband and wife together and the man never goes to sentence at all. He gets them reconciled and they go away, and, as the story goes, "they live together in happiness ever after."

THE PRESIDENT:

Now the gentleman from Binghamton can have the privilege of the floor.

MR. GITCHELL:

I notice a great many are getting warm and quite nervous; and, although I do not expect to take but a very short time in presenting the invitation to Binghamton, I hope to be here at the opening of your morning session, and I think perhaps it will be pleasanter to make my remarks at that time. I think a motion to adjourn will be a great deal more appreciated than my remarks.

MR. WEISZ:

I would suggest that Mr. Gitchell go right on now, as we have our regular procedure to follow at our morning session, and there are men coming here who will want to have an opportunity to take part in the morning.

MR. GITCHELL:

It is entirely satisfactory to me.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen: (Reads)

I have the honor to officially represent the city of Binghamton, the most beautiful in the east; and, in behalf of the mayor, city and county officials, the Binghamton Chamber of Commerce, and the people of the city and county, to extend to you their greetings and a sincere and cordial invitation to the superintendents of poor of the State of New York to hold their thirty-ninth annual convention as their guests.

You, gentlemen and ladies, are engaged in a work of the heart; you represent that element in manhood and womanhood, charity, that makes this world such a good place to live in. You are not only caring for the aged and infirm; you are taking the children who are brought into the world without opportunity, and supplying them the opportunity to equip themselves mentally, physically and morally, to become good and useful citizens, who will so order their lives that the world will be better because they have lived.

In this age of specialty the life of the average citizen is occupied to the overflowing with the work he has taken up; so he has

elected you to do for him that which he wants done, but cannot do except at the sacrifice of his own chosen field. You are to study conditions and the requirements of the various cases brought to your attention, and apply that which is necessary to correct the condition.

Most vocations require physical and mental training; yours requires both, with the additional development of that heart quality, known as sympathy, or the milk of human kindness, with an appreciation of human nature, particularly the weaknesses of human nature.

The positions you have been called by the people to occupy, the work you are doing, and the heart quality necessary to the performance of the work, has developed you men and women along those lines that we other citizens, engrossed in our narrower work, have overlooked.

You have a message to bring us in Binghamton and Broome county that we want to hear. If you meet in Binghamton next June, our dailies will contain detailed accounts of your meetings, that will be read by a quarter of a million people. Reading, they will understand better the great work you are doing; understanding, they will more intelligently insist that our State, county and city administration provide the means and facilities for you to carry out your ideas for a greater and more efficient public charity.

While we are a hospitable people and glad to welcome all who come to our city, we very earnestly desire, and shall take particular pleasure in entertaining 150 or more men like Mr. W. S. Stone, our superintendent, and Mr. W. A. Pollard, the keeper, and a hundred or more women like Mrs. Pollard, who is known and loved throughout Broome county for the very efficient work she is doing at our county farm.

Binghamton is one of the two cities in this State that is most easy of access from all parts. It has three hotels, any one of which can comfortably care for all of your people, including assembly room for meetings and dances. The two rivers, woods and hills surrounding the city offer every opportunity for entertainment and Mr. Stone, Mr. Pollard and our supervisors will see to it that you will have such a good time that you will depart

wishing that the time will soon pass that you can come to Binghamton again.

All of our people will be with you at your meetings through the published proceedings and you will leave behind you better men and women and better citizens because you have been with them. I am sure, from the acquaintances I have formed there, that they will find your association so pleasant that they will annually be renewing their invitation for you to meet with them again.

Mr. President, ladies and gentlemen, I hope to have the pleasure of assisting in your entertainment at Binghamton next June.

For your courtesy and attention I thank you.

An adjournment was taken until 9:30 o'clock, Wednesday morning.

THE ANNUAL BANQUET.

There was scarcely the proverbial room for one more in the spacious dining-room of The Earlington this evening on the occasion of the annual banquet. The attendance at the convention has been gratifyingly large and none was absent at this time. An excellent menu was served and was thoroughly enjoyed. A hum of conversation pervaded the room until, with the introduction of the cheese and coffee, the speech-making began, when the attention of all was turned to those among their number who were to speak for and to them.

Mr. John D. Cary of this village acted as toastmaster, or as the honorable gentleman from Albany phrased it, roast-master, and with many facetious references introduced each speaker.

Mr. Graham, who was first in order, in explaining "Why We Came," assured his hearers that the town was all right, the people were all right and everything was all right, and that, therefore, the success of the affair was by no means to be questioned.

Mr. Allen J. Bloomfield, member of the board of trustees of the village, spoke for his colleagues in again welcoming the members of the convention to the town and in a dignified and pleasing manner enumerated its attractions, the foundations of its prosperity, and the charitableness of its church and other associations, so that while there are no very rich here, there are also no very poor.

The Hon. A. L. Kellogg of Oneonta and a member of the Otsego county board of supervisors was in his happiest vein as he responded to his toast, the "Boards of Supervisors," and kept his audience in a merry humor throughout his speech.

Mr. Johnson, superintendent of the Albany Orphan Asylum, kept well to his text in expressing the "Modern Views of Childhood," contrasting them with the ideas held in former days when the individuality of the child was neither considered nor respected.

Mr. Dodge of Chautauqua county excused himself from replying to the toast assigned him and Mr. Trimble of Auburn was unable to respond.

Mr. Breen of Watertown spoke of "Charity and Its Abuses" and paid an eloquent tribute to the merits of the men who administer the charitable affairs of his county, men whose honesty and force of character have been proven through long years of service.

The Hon. William C. Rogers of Albany, Superintendent of the State and Alien Poor, was the last speaker. His subject was "The Need of Simplicity," a need that is everywhere a crying one in this day and age of the world. The conscientious care of those under their charge, plenty of simple, wholesome food of sufficient variety and attention to the sick and infirm were duties whose performance he urged upon the officials, while recognizing that they all strove daily for the accomplishment of these ends. His remarks received deserved attention and his paper to be delivered Wednesday morning is anticipated with no little interest.

WEDNESDAY MORNING.

The convention was called to order by the president.

THE PRESIDENT:

Will the secretary read the lists of committees?

Secretary reads:

Committee on Time and Place.

DAVID HITCHCOCK, Dutchess.

R. C. QUINN, Chenango.

W. P. KYSOR, Cattaraugus.

H. W. POSSON, Orleans.

C. VAN ORDEN, Ulster.

Committee on Topics.

C. V. LODGE, Monroe.

F. J. LATTIMORE, Cayuga.	MISS H. IDA CURRY, New York.
WM. C. ROGERS, Albany.	MRS. FLORENCE GRANNIS, Onondaga.

Committee on Finance.

J. W. IVES, Wyoming.

JAS. J. GILMORE, Livingston.	G. H. CRAFT, Genesee.
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Committee on Organization.

P. REDMOND, Jefferson.

HERBERT S. SISSON, Erie.	WM. C. ACKER, Steuben.
C. CROSSMAN, Genesee.	J. F. DOTY, Wayne.

Committee on Legislation.

C. E. WEISZ, New York.

R. S. WISNER, Ontario.	FRED P. DUNNAWAY, Jefferson.
W. W. COLLINS, Newburg.	DAN C. GRUNDER, Allegany.

Committee on Resolutions.

JONATHAN BAKER, Suffolk.

J. P. CARMAN, Dutchess.	GEORGE C. RUNDEL, Ulster.
WM. C. LAWRENCE, Westchester.	H. D. NOTTINGHAM, Onondaga.

THE PRESIDENT:

We will now listen to an address by the Hon. William C. Rogers, Superintendent of State and Alien Poor, on the subject of

UNFIT IMMIGRATION AND NON-RESIDENT POOR.

MR. ROGERS:

Mr. President: For several years I have been a guest and visitor of your convention, and I am very glad to become, by adoption, a member of the Association.

The topic which has been assigned to me this morning is one which is of interest to every member of the convention, and not only to the authorities in charge of poor relief, but to the American public as well.

Our grandfathers and our forefathers were themselves immigrants to the United States and when they left their homes across the sea and came to this country they found a cordial welcome here on the American shores. As they distributed throughout the Atlantic and Middle States, and finally reached the western borders of the continent they fused with those already here, and produced a sturdy race, unequalled in the history of the world for its capability and achievement.

Our country is broad; many of our acres unpopulated; many of our States are capable of supporting ten times the population which now inhabits them. It will be a great many years before there needs to be any restriction on desirable immigration. There has always been some restriction on undesirable immigration, but we, as officers in charge of poor relief, know that the State of New York has not been amply and properly protected from the undesirable class of immigrants. It is the energetic, competent and skillful who push on beyond our borders as soon as they land. Four-fifths of the immigrants reaching America land at the port of New York, and a very large percentage of that immigration stays permanently within our borders, so the State of New York has a larger proportion of foreign-born than any other State. We have to assimilate these foreigners. There was a time when the incoming ships brought chiefly Irish and German immigrants; and then there came a time when Swedes, Norwegians, Finlanders, French and Austrians came to this country in considerable numbers. Gradually the European point of departure has moved southward and eastward and the Hungarians, Poles and other German and Austrian people, and the Italians from the north and south of Italy, and Sicily, and the Greeks and Syrians, are now coming in large numbers, and these immigrants from the south coast and from the east of Europe are forming a large proportion of the foreigners who knock at the doors of the superintendents of the poor.

When there is insufficient work for the immigrants, when there is no means of distributing them to places where they can obtain

employment, when they come in such numbers and of such character that they are taking the wages from the American-born laborer, then there must be devised some wise measures of restriction.

The present immigration laws of the United States of America exclude from admission to the United States certain undesirable classes of immigrants. The mentally afflicted are one of the classes, such as idiots, imbeciles, feeble-minded persons, epileptics and insane, not only those actually insane when they arrive, but those who have been insane at any time within a period of five years or twice insane at any previous time. Another class is those unable to earn a living. This includes paupers, professional beggars and persons likely to become a public charge; and these are properly excluded, if they are discovered before they enter America. The class of physically enfeebled persons are excluded, including persons suffering from tuberculosis, or any loathsome or dangerous contagious disease; and there is still another subdivision of excluded persons not embraced in any of the specific classes I have named, yet persons who can be classified as being either mentally or physically incompetent, such mental or physical incompetency being of a degree which may affect their ability to support themselves. No convicts nor persons convicted of a felony or any crime or misdemeanor involving moral turpitude as well as polygamists, anarchists, prostitutes or procurers of prostitutes, or contract laborers may be admitted. It is forbidden that any immigrant shall land, if his passage has been paid by some other person, unless he can show that he does not belong to any of the foregoing excluded classes. A man has the right to send money for his brother to come across, but that assistance rendered the brother must not be considered as entitling him to admission, unless it is clearly shown that he does not belong to any of these feeble or afflicted classes. All children under sixteen are excluded unless accompanied by their parents or guardian, except that, in special cases, an appeal may be had in behalf of the child to the Commissioner-General of Immigration.

You see the classes of immigrants which are excluded from entry into America are quite well defined and cover a broad range of undesirable emigrants.

The great trouble has been to discover them on board ship, or when they touch at Ellis island, or other ports of entry. The immigration laws provide that if a member of any of these classes becomes a public charge within three years after he lands in America, and the officers of the institution where he becomes such a dependent certify that the cause of his disability existed at the time of his entry, that person may be deported regardless of his wishes in the matter. Should any one of them become incapacitated for self-support through any subsequent illness, he may, if he requests it, be returned by the United States authorities at any time within one year after he lands in this country. Further than that the United States does not go. The immigration service turns back all the afflicted and defective it can detect at the time of their entry. It returns by United States authority all those enfeebled who become dependent within three years whose cause of dependence arose before they landed. It complies with the request of those who wish to return, where their dependence has arisen within one year of the time of their arrival.

An alien is any foreigner who has not become a naturalized citizen of America. They cannot be naturalized or take out their first papers until they have been in this country five years, and we believe the limit of the time in which persons should be deportable by the United States authorities should be extended to equal the length of time which it requires for those who really desire to become citizens to make their wishes known. You have known, all of you, of foreigners who have remained aliens after a residence of eight, ten and twelve years — yes, twenty years — in America, always intending to return to their native lands; but becoming permanent public charges in our institutions through vice or misfortune.

We believe the United States laws should be extended so as to provide for the return, within five years, of those undesirable immigrants who should have been turned back when they landed, and we believe the United States should comply with the request of persons to be returned who become dependent from subsequent causes, for an equal period of five years. At present, if a man has been in this country thirteen months and becomes paralyzed, and thereafter likely to be a permanent dependent, the United

States cannot, under the present laws, comply with his wishes to be returned to his father and mother in the old country. After a brief residence of only three months in this country he cannot be returned against his wishes. The State Board of Charities is authorized by the Legislature to provide for the return of all aliens who become public charges in this country and are not deportable under the United States statutes, who, in the opinion of the Superintendent of State and Alien Poor, will be benefited by such removal, if the removal is also an advantage to the people of the State. Under the provisions of this law the State Board of Charities is able to make many more removals than we are able to get the United States to make. We are removing something more than 100 aliens and non-residents every month, one-third of whom are being removed by the United States authorities and the remaining two-thirds are being removed at the expense of this State.

Before I speak any further on the matter I want to invite each of you to let us know promptly when an alien or nonresident becomes a public charge in your institution. A great many superintendents are doing that now, and we are succeeding in relieving their counties of the burden of the permanent support of such cases, and we are willing to do a great deal more if you will let us know at the time they enter your charge, because the time limit I mentioned begins with their entry into the United States and not the time they enter your institution. As soon as the year is past in the case of subsequent dependents, and as soon as the three years are past in the case of dependents whose disability existed when they landed, they cannot be removed by the United States, but must be removed, if at all, by the State of New York.

In regard to the non-resident poor who become public charges, we mean by non-resident poor, not what are commonly called "State poor," although a great many State poor are also non-residents. We mean the county charges who come from other States, and, having resided in some county of this State for more than sixty days, are not proper State poor persons, but they have not gained a settlement in any town and they become county charges at your institution. There is no provision in the Poor Law authorizing the county superintendent of the poor to furnish transportation outside of the State to a nonresident poor person.

Any such expenditure by any superintendent is illegal and unwarranted. The law gives the State Board of Charities the duty of furnishing that transportation, and that expense and investigation is one properly made under the law by the Department of State and Alien Poor. Any time an inmate reaches your institution from Pennsylvania, Illinois, Ohio or Kentucky or any other State, we would be pleased to have you let us know of it and make an application for the removal of that person. Our rules of procedure in such matters are on the principles adopted by the best authorities in charitable relief transportation throughout the United States, and might safely be a guide to you in the matter of furnishing transportation to resident poor persons. We do not send people where they wish to go, on that plea. We send them where they belong, and not where they say they belong, but where we find them to belong after a strict examination; and we verify that examination by correspondence with the references they give us their home places, unless they have written proof with them in the shape of a recently posted letter, bearing the postmark of the place where they come from. We do not require a letter from a brother, reading, "Dear John: We are anxious for you to come home, and we will take care of you all our lives;" but we do want a letter from them showing that they are on good terms with him, and that we may be reasonably sure he will be supported.

As to the State poor, I think the most of you are very well informed about them because we are getting State poor committed to the various State almshouses from most of the counties in the State. All of you are aware, I am sure, that under the laws any person who has not been a resident of any county in the State for sixty days within a year of the time when he applies for public relief is a State poor person and is to be committed as such to a State almshouse. We are not permitted to pay for the support of State poor in your county almshouses or in any other local institutions to which you may have committed your sick or destitute. They must be committed to the State almshouse. We will pay for the transportation of the person to the State almshouse including the cost of an escort, and we pay the State almshouse for the support of State poor in that institution. We shall be very glad to accept any persons who are legally chargeable to the State.

You should bear in mind that the sixty-day rule is definite; it is not sixty-one days. If they have been sixty-one days in the county they are not entitled to be called State poor persons, and if they have not been sixty days within any county they are State poor persons.

But, of course, a residence at a charitable institution as a pauper does not contribute toward giving him a sixty-day settlement. We will accept a person who has been in your institution for six months, if you suddenly discover he is a State poor person. If he has been in any county for thirty days at one time and forty days at another time that is more than sixty days, if it is all within one year. If he has been sixty days at a penitentiary he is not a State poor person, for a penitentiary is scarcely a charitable institution. If you will bear those things in mind we should be able to accept your State poor.

The State Board of Charities is authorized, under the law, to pay for the support of any Indian poor in any almshouse, and in every case all that is required is that we be notified that John Hotbread, an Indian, is destitute and needs care at such an almshouse and that you have committed him to such an almshouse on such a day; and with that stipulation we shall be very glad to pay your county treasurer for the maintenance of any Indian.

Another class of non-resident poor was mentioned in the discussion yesterday and I was very much interested in the turn which the discussion took. I refer to that class of non-residents—tramps. By tramps I want to say we do not mean the sick, aged or broken-down and feeble wanderer; those might better be classed under the head of “non-residents who need relief.” By tramps I mean the “husky hobo” who considers that work is far beneath him; the man who walks up to your institution and wants a supper quick, and the man who would not work unless he could discover his salvation in this world and the next depended upon it. Those persons are not poor persons entitled to relief. They are not poor persons within the meaning of the law, authorizing you to grant them any relief whatever. If I were compelled by the circumstances of the hour to shelter the “husky hobo,” I should turn him over to a magistrate the next morning, and if this thing were done in every case, I believe it would be the end of that business in this

State. It would be a good thing, I agree, if we could have a State farm to send them to labor, and to labor hard for one year, but, as long as we do not have a State farm, let us use the means we have. When a tramp is sent to you by a magistrate and you think the commitment is unjust see your magistrate and explain to him that the Penal Code authorizing him to commit a person to the almshouse plainly states that he is authorized to commit only such persons as are properly entitled to that relief. In other words, an able-bodied vagrant who needs punishment is not properly entitled to commitment to your institution. The magistrate is allowed to commit only such persons as he thinks appear to need almshouse relief. Sometimes a person is unwisely arrested by a policeman when he needs shelter. Such a person should be turned over to you by the magistrate for adequate relief and shelter, without being committed as a vagrant. You cannot make a prison of the almshouse; it is not right for you to impose prison associations upon the needy poor. It is putting them with an element which breeds disorder; and I sincerely hope the time is not far distant when the superintendent of the poor of every county can say he does not receive tramps, and he does not have vagrants committed to him by magistrates.

MR. LODGE:

Mr. President, and Members of the Convention: In confining what few remarks I may make in the discussion of this paper we have just listened to on the immigration question, may I say: it appears to me that when the immigrants are unloaded from their incoming vessel and they march up through those narrow aisles at Ellis island and meet the doctor, there should be a more extended examination than to approve them by a casual observation; than to merely see that their eyes are not red and their cheeks sunken and that they are not hollow-necked. They are allowed to drift in without any real good medical examination. It appears to me that there should be a better examination of a woman entering with a baby in her arms than to ask her if her husband was with her; than to allow her to enter with a child two and a half years old, that had fallen in Italy and broken its hip and never received any medical attention and never been able to lift its little leg. That was the case of a woman whose husband died in Rochester and the woman

was returned to Italy. It seems to me we should have better examinations at Ellis island. It is not the bright, intelligent people who come here and do not stay within our borders, but move on, as, perhaps, we might mention the Swedes, Norwegians and the Germans, who are undesirable; but I think the time has come in our industrial conditions and the population of the United States, as it is, when an immigrant should be possessed of something more than a sound body to be allowed to land. All the superintendents who are near the large industrial centers know that just now they are swamped, not by mechanics, but by Russians, Italians and Poles, who have been allowed to land without a cent. They have been landing all the last fall and winter and are landing this spring; they have not been able to do a day's work. If they have enough money to get here they are allowed to land; and it seems to me the time has come when persons who are allowed to come into this country should have with them a reasonable amount of money to carry them along in the event of sickness, or so they can carry themselves along until they can get work and take care of themselves. I am continually obliged to put in the hospitals and the almshouse people who come through to Rochester, who have landed with just enough money to take them to Rochester; and I think the time has come when it should be obligatory that they have enough money with them to support them for a reasonable length of time.

I will not go into an extended discussion of this matter. Those are the main points as it appears to me.

MR. DODGE:

Mr. Chairman, I want to say just a word in connection with this matter. Speaking of amending the laws so that they should have a certain amount when they land in this country: — Now, as I understand it, they are obliged to have \$10, and my inquiries have satisfied me that in many cases the \$10 that passed them into this country was not their own money, but money they had borrowed or was handed to them to simply pass them into our country, and then it was passed back to the brother or friend who had loaned it to them, and they were actually penniless. I think there should be a law passed whereby they should have one or two hundred dollars when they come into this country, and that money should be deposited with the State of New York

for their care and maintenance, if they should be sick and need care, instead of the \$10 they borrow and hand back.

THE PRESIDENT:

Any further remarks?

MR. STONE:

I know I shall ask some foolish question. I want to ask Mr. Rogers if there is not a law requiring the steamship companies—compelling them—to return them if they become dependent within two years?

MR. ROGERS:

That is a government matter providing that if they become dependent within two years from the date of their arrival caused by tuberculosis or contagious diseases, etc., they shall be returned by the steamship companies who bring them; if they have some disease that should have been detected upon their arrival, the United States can compel the companies to take them back without expense to this government.

MR. STONE:

There is another question that tangles me a little. It is with regard to gaining a residence while serving a term in a penal institution. You stated it as a fact, and this gentleman from Monroe county, as I understood it, said they did become a State charge after they left the institution. As I understood it they gained a residence from the place they were sent from to the penal institution and had served or lived sixty days in the penitentiary, they would be a charge upon the community that sent them.

MR. ROGERS:

They are not State poor; they are not non-resident poor. If a man has been in some penitentiary for sixty days, he has been in some county for sixty days, so they cannot be committed where they settle, as State poor; but they are persons for whom, nevertheless, we will furnish transportation to their legal residences just as soon as we can ascertain where they belong.

MR. SULLIVAN:

Suppose they come from Connecticut or some other State — less than sixty days — what will you call them?

MR. ROGERS:

Both non-resident and State poor; we will also accept him and return him as a non-resident poor person.

MR. BAKER:

There seems to be a conflict in the meaning of the law: We have in Suffolk county a case bearing right on this question or this point. A fellow was picked up by somebody in the vicinity of New York city and committed to the penitentiary at Brooklyn — Kings county penitentiary — for sixty days, and kept there for sixty days and turned out and he walked straight out into Suffolk county. From his statements he had been in no county in this State except Kings county penitentiary for sixty days. The law says a man cannot, in any penitentiary or jail, gain a legal residence in that county. It would seem that he could not gain a legal residence in any county while he was there in that penitentiary. It seems to me to be unfair, under those conditions, that we are loaded down with a man who has not been in our county for more than three days.

In regard to Mr. Rogers' address it is very interesting to me; but there is one point that would be interesting to the convention if we could bring it out. The laws in regard to immigration and its restrictions seem to be deficient; but the fact is that they are not enforced. There is the State hospital at Islip where there are 3,000 inmates and 70 per cent. of them are foreign born. That shows that, in my opinion, the laws are not rigidly enforced in regard to immigration in this country, because they might have found on examination this defect, if the doctors had examined them at the port of New York. As Mr. Rogers says, these defects are hard to detect, but in my opinion, they are largely tainted with insanity when they come to this country.

MR. ROGERS:

I would like to say just a word in answer to Mr. Baker's remarks; especially his first remark about the non-residents who get out of the penitentiary and come down into his county. We

all know that that person is a non-resident and entitled to State relief wherever he applies. The only alternative to that is to keep these non-resident poor in your institutions indefinitely or else turn them adrift; and we would be glad to send that non-resident person to his legal residence. There is another inconsistency in the law in regard to gaining a residence under the Poor Law in a county, town or city, by a year's residence. I believe a residence in a jail or prison or any other public institution operates to gain a settlement, but, under the State Poor Law, a residence of not more than sixty days, excepting in a public charitable institution, operates to gain that residence.

I think the other portion of Mr. Baker's remarks were very well taken. I think there should be a more rigid enforcement of the Immigration Law; and I want to ask every superintendent of the poor here to co-operate with me in trying to secure for the public charitable institutions of the State a better way of taking care of non-resident poor.

MR. LODGE:

Before we proceed with the next paper I am requested to make an announcement in regard to the trip to the lake this afternoon. It was at first thought the cars would leave here at 1:45 o'clock; but it will be an hour later, at 2:45, and there will be cars down the block here at the station to go to the lake. Mr. Bronner wishes me to emphasize the fact that everything at the lake will be free to you if you wear your badges. If it is possible to get hold of enough cars, they will provide cars for you free. If they cannot make this arrangement the fare will be five cents, and cars will be there at 2:45.

MR. WEINZ:

Mr. President, I feel that I am the proudest man in this Association to-day. My reason for it is that I point back some years in the proceedings of this Association when I began the agitation of the immigration question; and, as I said, I feel that I am the proudest man in this Association to-day, after hearing the pleasant and most forcible statements made by the Superintendent of State and Alien Poor. I want to emphasize that — I want to say that it is the best statement ever made in this Association or

in any of its conventions. When I say that we point back some years when we began this agitation, the State was slow in taking any action on the immigration question. It was this Association that urged the Legislature of the State of New York to take some steps toward the restriction of immigration. When I began the agitation I was somewhat harshly criticised — in a very great respect condemned — by some of the members of the State Board of Charities. It was looked upon as if it were not a question for the superintendents of the poor to consider — that it should be left to other people. I contended at that time that it was the business of the superintendents of the poor because they were the men who represented their communities. He is their representative; he knows his people; they elect him and he is the elective officer of the particular county and of the particular town or city in which he must prosecute his business. It is, therefore, his concern to interest himself whether he shall have immigrants that are acceptable and who will become good citizens of the town, and he surely ought to press himself to the front, and to bar out the man who is not of that class who will never become a worthy citizen.

I quite agree with Mr. Rogers that the law should be amended to equal that of the United States law: That when he becomes a citizen then the limit of deportation ends, and that from the time he lands until he does become a qualified citizen he should remain a deportable case; that he should until then, from whatever cause that may arise between the time of his landing and the time of his becoming a citizen or even from causes which existed prior to his landing, be subject to deportation. And I heartily indorse Mr. Rogers' suggestion when he made the statement.

Representing the great city of New York, I know that I can state that the commissioner of public charities will indorse and confirm any statement I may make in that connection. I will assure Mr. Rogers that the commissioner of public charities of the city of New York will continue to increase the pleasant relations in the city of New York as well as the great State of New York.

Again, before I sit down, I want to say that Mr. Rogers' statements and his papers are the best I have ever heard pre-

sented at any convention of this Association. I want to say, as I said yesterday, that this organization ought to take some action whereby we might harmonize with other States and have them harmonize with us. We consider that our laws are fair and honest, and, in the exchange of poor, they should concede that we have the best system and act with every degree of fairness.

THE PRESIDENT:

The next on the program is an address by the Hon. Homer Folks, secretary of the State Charities Aid Association, New York City.

MR. FOLKS:

Mr. Chairman and Members of the Convention: It is true that time lays upon us new duties and brings before us new discoveries, and in no direction has the last twenty years laid upon us so great a duty, and laid upon us so great an opportunity to benefit our fellow men in connection with tuberculosis, for certainly you must all meet it in the performance of your official duties, both in the administration of outdoor relief, and every day in the maintenance of the county almshouses.

The subject of tuberculosis is one of the most vital importance to the State as well as to ourselves. When it is said — truly said — that 15,000 human beings died of tuberculosis in this State in 1907, that is quickly said; but it carries with it to the most of us little suggestion of its real meaning — little suggestion of the enormous loss — and, hitherto, has aroused but a very little interest in its importance. When you realize that the number of people who have died from the effects of this disease would equal the population of Dunkirk, or of Peekskill, or any other city of 15,000 inhabitants, one would be brought to the realization that something ought to be done to check the inroads of the disease. If it were that one of those beautiful cities were wiped off the map in one day by some catastrophe, that would be an event which would be world-wide in its effect, and would bring the contributions of the charitable from all over the world, and yet the loss in life and property in this State is as great each year, as though one of our cities of that size were wiped off the

map. No catastrophe of recent years approaches it in its annual mortality. At one time, the reasonable price of a slave was \$1,000, and a good one — a really good one — brought \$1,500. And the value of a man to a community is not less than the price of a good slave, so the loss of productive capacity to the State would be at least \$15,000,000. The added expense of maintaining orphans in the institutions, who are made orphans through the ravages of this disease — there are something like 35,000 children supported in the different institutions of this State — is enormous. We recently made an examination of the conditions, in one city, of the cause of the orphanage of the children and found that 37 per cent. of the children were there because of the loss of one or both parents through tuberculosis.

It has been made the subject of great study and research, and still we do not know as much about it as we hope to. It is easy to state what we do know about it. We know that the disease which causes more deaths than any other disease in the State is not hereditary; that it does not in every instance descend from father or mother to son or daughter. We know that it is caused by a very minute germ which may attack any part of the human body, but which usually attacks the lungs. We know that that germ consumes the substance of the lungs, and, therefore, the word "consumption" originated. We know that we only get that disease from those who have it; that the germs must enter our bodies from the bodies of those who have the disease. When we have said that we have said almost all that is to be said about it up to this time. It is not like smallpox; we have no antitoxin with which we may become immune; but, for our encouragement, we should know that the leading men of this country and elsewhere are making experiments, and hope to discover some way whereby we may be vaccinated and thereby become immune as we are now immune from smallpox, which is also a germ disease.

The day may dawn in our time — and we have every reason to think it will — but it has not yet come. We know the germ causes the disease but do not know how to ward it off. We know that science has discovered a toxin for diseases which will attack the germ and kill it. We have an antitoxin for diphtheria

which directly attacks the germ of the diphtheria disease and kills it. We have no anti-toxin for tuberculosis, and we know it is a germ, but we have no means of directly arresting its work. If when the body is overstrained, has insufficient food, is overworn, is under unfavorable conditions, and is tired, then it is that the bacillus or tuberculosis germ enters the system, and, therefore, it is that we can secure a cure in a certain number of cases in the early stages, not by any medicine or anti-toxin but by simply giving the body rest — plenty of rest, and a change, plenty of food and sunlight — these are essential in the curative treatment of tuberculosis.

But, while we have not learned how the disease is directly to be combatted, the discovery of the germ of the disease results in the teaching of how it may be prevented; how healthy persons may not receive it into their lungs. We know, for instance, from recent experiments, that this germ of tuberculosis will live indefinitely in the dark — indefinitely in a warm place that is not too hot. We know that the direct rays of the sunlight will kill it in three or four hours. We know that even four or five days of even ordinary daylight, without the sunlight, will kill the germ. We know that boiling will kill it. Therefore, it becomes a question of taking pains to see to it that the germs which are developed in the lungs of a person having the disease do not get into the lungs of others.

A few years ago we were talking a great deal about germs floating in the air, and thereby being breathed in by other persons. I believe the doctors are not talking quite as much about that now, and still we do not ever see a person take tuberculosis. We know it goes on in our presence, in your institutions, in our places of public meetings and our schools. We do not see it do this where it happens. A person coughs who has tuberculosis; he spreads little particles into the air all about him, especially in front of him, and if you are there you will receive some of it. He spits into his handkerchief and puts it in his pocket, and if you touch that, you will get it. We know it is in one of those ways, but we do not know which one, and in such a way as that, this disease is passed on to another.

We know also that the average duration of the disease is about three years. We know that it comes on so insidiously that no

layman, and few doctors, recognize it in the incipient stages. Nineteen out of every twenty physicians will treat a patient for some other disease and by and by wake up to the fact that the trouble was that the lungs were affected.

I recently asked a physician in New York to give me a statement in writing of the earliest symptoms of tuberculosis. His judgment was that there were no early symptoms; that it comes on before the patient is aware that he is suffering from any such disease, and then the indications are so rarely recognized. Any cough lasting more than a month is sufficient ground for having the lungs looked after. Or any fever, returning each afternoon, should also be sufficient cause to send one to a physician. That being so, how are we to find the incipient stages in which it can be cured? Where there has been a person in a family who has suffered from the disease in an advanced stage, there is likely to be another person who will take the disease, if such a one is permitted to be near the afflicted person. And when there are cases where poor relief is given them, all the other members of the family ought to be examined and their sputum tested to see if there are any indication of tuberculosis present. In some 4,500 families in which there was a case of tuberculosis in the advanced stage, they discovered 4,500 new cases in the early stages of the disease.

It is the advanced patient for whom there is no hope of cure, but some hope of improvement. Therefore, there is the greatest importance in providing care for the advanced patient, not that you may save his life, which you probably cannot do, but that thereby you may save the lives of others.

I said at the outset that the question of tuberculosis must be constantly before all officials dealing with the brother in the question of outdoor relief; and I wish to state my feelings upon the question of outdoor relief. I am sorry we have not had that discussed here at the convention, because it certainly is one of importance, second to none. We hear a great deal said, especially on the part of charitable institutions, of the dangers of outdoor relief, and it has not been overestimated. There has been some talk of abolishing outdoor relief. It seems to me that we should bear in mind that we have outdoor relief; that it is

the recognized means of assisting certain families in certain cases, and that that can be made the opportunity — the giving of the relief, and the giving of it may be the opportunity of securing great improvements in the living conditions of those who receive it; and if it is given to those afflicted with tuberculosis it certainly should be given in such a manner as to require in the first place, proper care of the consumptive homes, and a proper protection of the members of the families, giving encouragement to outdoor relief.

Let me call your attention to one family recently visited in this State by us, in receipt of outdoor relief. They live in a basement consisting of three rooms, one very small. The family consisted of a man, who had the disease in a far advanced stage, his wife, three children and four boarders; and all of those persons were living in those three rooms, and with a man who was in an advanced stage of tuberculosis.

In that very city of which I speak, the death rate from tuberculosis is four times as high as in any other city, and is higher than in the great city of New York with all its tenement-houses.

The giving of outdoor relief, and the requiring of certain healthful conditions of living, the giving of a sufficient amount of outdoor relief, and the removal of a person in the advanced stages, who will not care for himself properly in his own home, is one of the urgent means for restricting this disease.

In the incipient cases outdoor relief is very important. I was visiting a friend in one of the cities of this State, and we were talking about settlements. He said, "The people are not poor around here"—he had always lived in comfortable circumstances himself. He asked my advice about settlements, and I told him he would probably find something to do in the way of treating tuberculosis. He said there was a nice hospital in the town there for the treatment of tuberculosis. He said there is a man here who has just come back who is not cured but is better; that he had been worrying about his family and his children, that there was no one to take care of them. It is economy for the people to take care of the family, rather than that the family should take care of the dying consumptive patient.

A few moments only in regard to the institutional care of the advanced cases. All through the cities and counties of the State there are scores and scores of people in absolute destitution — people in advanced stages, unable to care for themselves or their children — who are dragging out a miserable existence, with no proper care, and it is because they do not want to sacrifice their American manhood by going to the poorhouse. That is one of the problems of the disease — to get them to go to the poorhouse. The poorhouses at this time have not the means and facilities of taking care of them. What do you do with them when they come there? Each year we send out to our visitors a list of questions among which is the question, "How many consumptives have you in the almshouse?" We were asked that question some years ago by the National Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis. When we told them they laughed and said, "You cannot have that many people together in this country without having tuberculosis, and they knowing it, because they have not the close medical attention and care to recognize it." That is perfectly true and it was verified recently in a number of instances. Not until the patient is so far along that he practically has to take to his bed is it recognized and treated as consumption. Before that he has catarrh or bronchitis, before he is treated for consumption.

To what extent can you treat tuberculosis? It requires hospital care. In several of the counties of the State new buildings are in the course of construction. It is a serious question whether the provision for the treating of tuberculosis ought to be made in the almshouses as part of the almshouse administration or the support of a hospital. The people of Illinois have passed a law this year whereby each county may vote upon the question of establishing a county hospital to be under a board of trustees appointed by the county judge. The difficulty of getting patients to go to a county hospital is extremely great, and I trust that everything that can be done to support a hospital for consumptives, apart from the rest of the almshouses, should be done. We are assured by the best medical authority in the country, that, by separating those afflicted with this disease from the rest of our county charges, we can reduce by one-half the start of this disease. That would mean the saving of 7,500 lives in the State of New York alone.

Is there any other subject more important than the distribution of outdoor relief, indoor or outdoor, in such a manner as to prevent the inroads of this disease? (Applause.)

MR. DODGE:

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen of the Convention: It would seem folly for me to try to offer a single remark on this subject after listening to the splendid address which you have just heard. I do not think I could say a word that would be of profit or interest. The ground has been so thoroughly covered by the gentleman, and anything that I might say must be along the local lines, particularly in Chautauqua county.

I was particularly interested in what the gentleman said as to the local relief given to persons with tuberculosis cases in the family. I apprehend that the same conditions exist in the most if not all the rural counties of the State as I am up against at home, which happen in my own county in taking care of our own poor. And I do not know what would happen to me if I should try to relieve any family in the local town, of a tuberculosis patient, because of the reason of the protection of the family or the members. It is up to the overseer of the poor of that town, and, in my observation, the overseer of the poor in his work — it is not often the uplifting of humanity but for the saving of the “almighty dollar” — and my observation is that the local relief ought not to be entirely for the relief of the afflicted one, but for the protection of the other members of the family, and those of the community, and that they should carry out the advice of the physician in charge of the case.

I cannot believe that there is a single other superintendent in any county of the State of New York who could be more enthusiastic in the relief or the prevention of the spread of tuberculosis than myself. I wish I could say a word that would eliminate this terrible disease from the face of the earth, for it has taken from me some of my dearest friends: and if there is any patient above another, that comes into my care as superintendent, that will not only have all that is coming to him, but that everything shall be done to protect every other person from the infection of that tuberculosis patient. I shall certainly do all in my power, and do it at my own expense if I could not do it with the county funds.

In our almshouse we have very few tuberculosis patients except those who come to the home in the very last stages of the diseases, and we do the best we can in every way to shield the public and the other patients from them.

However, as we are situated, we can do but very little for them. The visitors who come there to look over the institution, I think, should receive more protection than the patients that I have associated with the tuberculosis patients.

I do not believe that I could say anything more that would be of profit on this occasion.

MR. WEISZ :

In relation to the question of tuberculosis, it is quite true, as Mr. Folks has said; it is a serious question — more particularly so in our cities — although I know of a number of cities that are not quite so large that are afflicted with a greater number of cases of tuberculosis cases than the great city of New York with its great population. However, New York is doing everything it possibly can. I know personally — and I think it can be thoroughly confirmed by Commissioner Folks — that the board of health of New York City has started out its vigilant corps hard at work. In like manner has the commissioner of health and the board of charities started at the same work. They have taken up the work of tuberculosis and on the same lines that Commissioner Folks, I find, has touched. If I am not mistaken, there are about 72,000 persons suffering from tuberculosis that are not inmates of any institutions; that will not go to an institution, but are endeavoring to cure themselves at home and laboring along that line. I know that the commissioner of health has struggled hard with the authorities of the city of New York in securing money sufficient to establish tuberculosis shacks, and endeavoring hard to reconstruct that part of the island occupied by the hospital and the tuberculosis shacks. He has presented his case very forcibly to them and they have furnished him, from time to time, with the means of establishing tuberculosis shacks on that island. If matters continue, the Richmond hospital for tuberculosis under the supervision of the board of charities will possibly be commenced in the near future, and completed, and then we can very readily take care of all the most

important patients in that part of the city. Under the present conditions we are obliged to make use of other hospitals. The commissioner of health has struggled along with considerable obstacles in his way, but he has successfully surmounted many of them, and he, I know, is very much interested in the checking and care of tuberculosis in that city.

MR. LODGE:

May I make an announcement, please? A very unexpected change in the program has been made by the committee of entertainment which seems to necessitate our omitting our afternoon program; but, according to the program, Dr. Russell is here, and he has a very interesting paper on "The Care of the Insane Pending Commitment." With the permission of the Association Dr. Russell will read his paper the first thing in the morning, as he must necessarily be in Albany, and then we will go right on with our program from that point. I speak of this because I know you will be glad to hear it.

A VOICE:

I am informed that our much beloved superintendent who was just on the floor is receiving congratulations on his birthday. Is that right?

MR. LODGE:

I don't know how that got out.

A GENTLEMAN:

Then there will be no session this afternoon?

MR. LODGE:

No.

Adjournment was taken until Thursday at 9:30 a. m.

THURSDAY MORNING.

THE PRESIDENT:

Will the convention please come to order? As I understand it, the first thing on the program this morning is an address by Mr. Calvin Derrick, superintendent of the George Junior Republic.

MR. DERRICK:

Mr. President, Members of the Convention, Ladies and Gentlemen: I do not know but that I owe this body an apology for asking you to come together at this very unseasonable hour in the morning. The arrangement is necessary in order for me to meet other arrangements for this evening; and I feel as if I should not only apologize to you for asking you to disarrange your program, but to thank you for having done so.

I was assigned to this place on the program in place of Mr. Osborne. He asked me to convey his regrets and to say that it was not because he was not in sympathy with your work that caused him to forego coming here; but that he was on two bills at the same time, and he did what he thought was the highest duty — a duty to his college.

The topic, "Training for Citizenship," is a timely one, and it will always be; and I wish it might always be discussed at every one of the conventions of this nature.

The training for citizenship is broad as well as timely, for in the word "citizenship" you have almost everything that goes to make up the very essentials of life. In this government of ours, the government is decided more than in any other place, probably, by the people. Now, that being the case, we must look to the individual for responsibility of the highest order. He must not only be a true citizen but a true man, and it is necessary for our government that the morals of the man making up that government are sound, so that he can cast his vote intelligently and act intelligently upon the matters that come before him.

Dr. Henderson, who is an authority on the subject, points out to us that we frequently lose sight of an education. We are likely to think that the good lawyer, the skillful physician, or the good mechanic, or something of that sort is the major end of an education. Our object is to make a man of the boy and a woman of the girl, and all other things are secondary to that.

Of course, to produce a good doctor, a keen lawyer or a breadwinner, or a high order of man of any kind, is a very desirable thing, but if anything is to be sacrificed let it be their skill; and two-thirds of our associations to-day, particularly along the reform movement, are likely to forget that point, and if they think they

have turned out a man who is able to maintain himself, nearly all the world think they have attained all that is necessary. We do not think so. Our object is to teach them to live first, and to earn their living second. The two questions always go hand in hand.

Of course you expect the burden of my talk to be on the George Junior Republic. I am the representative of that institution and I am here to talk about it, and I wish to point out other features of the underlying facts of the work.

The first thing is to make safe, sound citizens out of wayward and incorrigible boys and girls. We believe in beginning with the fact that if the boy is incorrigible and stubborn it is no reason why he cannot be made into a good citizen. We also believe the way to train the boy for the responsibilities of this government is to give him responsibilities throughout his training. We differ somewhat as to how that training shall take place. For instance, we do not believe that a stubborn boy or girl is to be made to be good. We do not believe in shutting up a boy or girl, and that repressing the lines of development, that he has naturally got to display, until he is twenty-one years of age will make him a good citizen.

The development of the children of whom I am speaking must be along the lines of their nature, and, working on that theory, we accord to the boys and girls in the George Junior Republic the greatest measure of freedom that they are able to carry with that measure of freedom, which is almost as great as you and I enjoy on the outside of the Republic. And the reason why we believe that is because the child's nature outgrows his natural propensities — which is not developing his latent possibilities.

Why is he bad or stubborn? Not from pure "cussedness," but because he is not able to reason from more than one standpoint. If you put him in an institution and repress him, when he comes to the age of twenty-one years his reasoning power is just as latent as it was at the beginning. It must be allowed to outgrow his stubbornness.

I wish to make the theory of the Republic clear, and to show by some typical cases how this thing works.

I am going into the history of the Republic and show you our processes of development down through two years of our life

there. When I do this you may understand our form of government. It is almost like the government outside. We have a constitution and set of laws passed by these citizens, whose ages range from fourteen to twenty-one years. The laws are made by these citizens. They make any law or pass any law by vote. They have a sheriff, a judge and two good jails — one for the boys and one for the girls — and I want to say they are one of the best features of the Republic. These laws are all enforced by the boys and girls themselves. We have an association of adult helpers, who are under the control of the superintendent, but these citizens are not under the immediate control of the superintendent. They are under their own control.

Suppose a new citizen comes there on the morning train. He is entitled to twenty-four hours' keep. Then, if the doctor finds upon examination that he is able to work, he is supposed, before he gets his fourth meal, to get out and find a job. That is not hard, because we have a farm of 350 acres, a printing shop, a cabinet shop, a bakery — he can always get a job — but, in the case I have in mind, a young man by the name of William said he did not come up there to work, and he did not propose to work, his father was paying \$250 a year for him and he did not propose to work. So I said, "All right, William, you need not if you do not want to." The landlady where he went to board asked him who he was working for, and he said "Nobody." She says, "You cannot get board here if you do not work." So he went the rounds of the cottages and nobody would take him because he had no visible means of support. The chief of police came along and says, "Where are you living?" "Nowhere," said William. "You are arrested, come along with me." He was brought before the judge and committed to work in the ditch for two hours to pay for his dinner. Then he wouldn't work. Between that time and supper-time he was arrested again and given his supper and a night's lodging in the jail. The next day he worked in the ditch with a pick and shovel to pay for his board. He made up his mind to work and to get a job. He went to the printer's shop and got a job. Armed with a certificate of his employment from the printer, he engaged a boarding-house. The next morning he did not appear at the

shop for work, and the printer notified the landlady, or house-lady. He was found, arrested as a vagrant, brought before the judge, charged with being an habitual vagrant, and he was put into the workhouse. During that time we were putting in a ditch seventeen feet deep. This boy was from the wealthiest home. This has been an ideal thing for him. At the end of thirty days with his hands all calloused, he made up his mind he might just as well work for ten cents an hour as to work in the ditches and board at the jail and eat his meals on tin dishes. The boy is all right now.

He was taught first, that nothing is to be gained without labor; second, that honest labor is the thing that makes a man self-supporting. The idea that he was immune from labor and hard knocks has been completely knocked out of that boy's mind.

When a boy is arrested by a policeman of his own age, and is brought before a judge of his own age and is tried by a jury of his own age, boys from fourteen to twenty-one years of age, and he is placed in a jail whose keeper is a boy, his fun is all taken out of him. The thought that he is regarded as a hero by his boy companions, as a boy who has done something great, is all gone out of him.

Another thing is the responsibility of its citizens, not the responsibility of association, but the responsibility of the citizens, and the fact that if the law is broken it is the citizen's fault. If I saw a boy of the George Junior Republic, this morning, smashing all the property, I should not stop him. He might be smashing all the windows in the place; I would not interfere. He would not smash many before the chief of police would land him in jail; the district attorney would have his case before the grand jury. The matter is straightened out and investigated in a better manner than if the authorities had taken it in hand.

We have a system of currency in the Republic, whereby money is worth a hundred cents on the dollar in the Republic, but it is worth nothing outside. We redeem it when we wish them to go out. We have a bank in the Republic called the Citizens Bank, and every citizen is obliged to maintain an account of \$3 in the bank. We had a new citizen come in and one of the first things he banged up against was our bank. He tried to

start a savings bank in opposition to our bank, and he said to the boys, "If you haven't got the money, give security and borrow it outside." This was a new thing to the boys. I tried to show them that that was a bad policy, nevertheless I had to concede to their arguments. It is the thing that runs the business world. I have taken no stand in the matter one way or the other. This is what happened. About three weeks ago this young man came to me with the proposition that the citizens establish a savings bank and loan association. I says, "All right, what is your plan?" "Our plan is to organize a stock company, to sell association stock at \$1 a share, and we want to draw up a charter, and we want to establish a discount department." I says, "It looks to me as if you were going to try to run our bank out of business." "That's just what we are going to do." I said, "Before you start the bank, you must get a franchise from the citizens. You must have a charter and I must see a list of your stockholders and officers. I want to know what kind of articles you are going to put through to protect your depositors," and those things. They are working on it to-day. A week ago at the general town meeting the citizens voted to give this franchise, and they are working hard and definitely on this line.

Gentlemen, is there any practical value to boys of from fourteen to twenty-one years of age in that sort of thing? What do you think of the chances of boys after they have gone through that kind of training? There is a certain and natural growth in that kind of training.

Now, I want you to understand that I am not in any way "knocking" State institutions in the least. I am not. Please do not get that idea. Those institutions have their place. They are just as necessary as anything else; but, it is so unfortunate, that the boy is let go so long that he must be placed in the Elmira Reformatory for development. If he could be taken before it is necessary that he go to a reform school and placed in some institution, the Republic or some place similar, where instead of being repressed, his surplus energy could be utilized properly, where, instead of bringing up in a State prison, or some such place, he will come out a bright, good fellow. In those places he

is stimulated in his tendency to crime by the association with real criminals; by putting him in a place where every associate was a criminal and where he would naturally improve in crime. If he had been placed in the Republic, where his associates, whose concern was a clean life of uplifting — all this he might have been.

So much for the side of the work. You ask me if we give any industrial training. Yes. We have a plumbing establishment, printing establishment, 350 acres of land, a big steam laundry and a good bakery. Boys get work readily in any of these places, with expert help at the head of these establishments. Then you ask, "Why does he not become an expert mechanic?" Because we are following the Republic idea. Must we tell them they must work so long in such a shop? Certainly not. Neither do we tell the boys what they shall do. The boy can try plumbing and if he does not like that work, he has the right to "jump his job" and go to the bakery, and if, after working at the bakery, he again jumps his job there and goes to work on the farm, he can do so; he can work the way he pleases. Many people seem to think this is demoralizing. Supposing this boy does not come out with an expert training in any one thing but has a smattering of this, that and the other; he will settle down and soon learn in the Republic that it will not pay to float. Why? Because he cannot get a recommendation if he floats, and he soon finds out, for his own industrial good, he must control his temper, and to subdue it, for he cannot get a job except in the jail. Is not that good training? If you tell him he must stick to plumbing because he started out in it, what kind of a plumber will you have? How many of you at twenty-one knew just what you wanted to do? How many of you to-day are doing just what you did at twenty-one? But if we have sent that boy out at twenty-one with the idea in mind that this government depends just as much upon him as upon any one, we have done our duty, Second: That he must work for everything that he gets. That is our motto there and we follow it up and back it up. The boy who is going through, whose father is paying \$500 a year, gets absolutely nothing more than the pauper who is paying us not one cent. If you send us a suit of clothing we put it in our

store, and we put a value on it of about two-thirds, and the citizen must pay for it with the money he earns there. We want them to know that they must pay for this clothing. If he wants to live in a better cottage he must earn the money, and if he wants to live the best he has got to get odd jobs and earn it.

Our boys go to school five hours and work five hours. Our school is under the Regents and compares favorably with any school of its kind in the State. Our boys go to school at 7 o'clock, and go to work at 1 o'clock. That is a rather strange sort of a life, a rather strenuous sort of a life, but they are boys with a great deal of nervousness and energy and they need it. If they keep out of trouble they get along nicely.

There is one other phase I wish to touch upon. Our institution is coeducational. It is for both boys and girls. Almost all the people with whom I talk about this ask if we do have a great deal of trouble with these girls. Isn't your place a very immoral place? No; there is not a cleaner place in the State of New York or the United States of America than the George Junior Republic. You can go down there and stay a year and never see a boy smoking nor hear a word of profanity. I am not such a fool as to think those boys never smoke. It is against their laws. If a boy smokes another boy squeals on him, and he is fined \$10 or ten days in jail.

You say, "Are there not a great many illicit relations between the boys and girls?" No. To stand before you and try to make you think that any place in the world where both sexes are together, and to say there is nothing of that kind, would be nonsense. We have the minimum trouble because they are watched. We have cottages for the boys and girls and at the head of each one is a house-mother. These girls are kept in four cottages; they sleep and eat there. They go to the boys' cottages and care for them. They go at 5:45 a. m. and go away at 6:45 at night. They are never left alone when the boys are in the cottages. We have lots of the boys running away, but I think there are but three of the boys who have run away that we have not been able to put our hands on within forty-eight hours through the use of the telephone.

Now, my time is exhausted and I am going to stop. I thank you for your very kind attention, and will be pleased to answer any queries you may have to make. (Applause.)

MR. WEISZ:

May I ask what recreation you grant the boys?

MR. DERRICK:

We have three first-class ball teams, and two football teams. The workers get off at 5 o'clock in the afternoon if they do their work satisfactorily. They have from that time until dark. Saturdays are half-holidays. The girls have basket-ball and picnics and all that sort of thing.

THE PRESIDENT:

It is on the program that Dr. Hill will open the discussion of this paper.

MR. WEISZ:

I would ask that Dr. Hill withhold for a moment until I offer this resolution.

WHEREAS, We learn with no small degree of sorrow of the death of the Hon. Grover Cleveland, President of these United States from 1885-1889, and again from 1893 to 1897, and the last of the ex-Presidents, and

WHEREAS, By his death the nation has lost one of its greatest citizens, one whose highest ambition was to serve the people in the best and most possible beneficial manner, therefore,

BE IT RESOLVED, That this Association send its condolence to the bereaved family in this their sad hour.

MR. WEISZ:

I move the adoption of this resolution.

Mr. Weisz's motion was seconded and carried by a unanimous vote.

DR. HILL:

I am sure that you were all interested while listening to the exposition of the plan adopted for the training of boys and girls in the George Junior Republic. Whether you are of the opinion that the plan solves the difficulties inherent in institutional training, and that it is a plan which can be successfully adopted everywhere, I do not know. The training of abnormal children and the delinquent minor wards of the State must be varied by different conditions and no method yet devised is perfect or entirely satisfactory.

I do not propose, however, to discuss the George Junior Re-

public at this time, nor to compare its method of training with the systems adopted in other institutions, but to suggest that the address presents to us for consideration the general problem of what is involved in the attempt to make good citizens of children who for any cause are now in charge of the State. This is a much more important matter than any particular plan of training, and it is one which seriously affects all sections of the State, for everywhere there are delinquent, destitute and abnormal children who need special attention.

In every institution there are children difficult to manage; even in the George Junior Republic there are so-called "citizens" whose propensities constantly tax the ability of the managers to successfully overcome them. These children call for rare wisdom in their management. What is needed for them is the harmonious development of the faculties.

To an institution is committed an undeveloped or abnormally-developed child—a child to whom nature has given a peculiarly delicate physical mechanism, and a mental equipment, and spiritual endowment, which, if properly adjusted, will make the child grow into a good and useful citizen; yet this complex young life if not harmoniously developed will be wrecked, and society injured. The great problem, therefore, is "how to develop the complex nature of the child, and so control the mechanism and functions and train the faculties that the result will be a harmonious mental, moral and physical completeness which will prepare for useful citizenship."

I listened to an address yesterday at another convention and if the address had no other title it could well be called "The Development of a Brain." That address voiced the responsibility which devolves upon all who have the care of abnormal children. It urged the trainer to stimulate the dormant or inert brain cells into activity and to endeavor to develop them and the centers of the nervous forces by constant exercise. The growing brain must be strengthened by blood circulation. This arouses the cells to growth and makes the child capable of understanding, and impels to the doing of things necessary to proper development.

The impulse which will stimulate the inert, inactive or dormant brain is not one which comes from within itself. If good citizens are to be made out of the abnormal children placed in the institu-

tions of the State, the children must be moulded while of the plastic age. If you are the teacher or trainer you must apply the proper stimulus to the dormant brain cell; every center that needs development must be touched, and your skill will in the end determine whether the cells which are thus developed shall have the elements necessary to good character — whether they have been properly cultivated. It is scientific truth that if you can apply a stimulus sufficient to start these dormant or inert cells into activity, there will be no trouble about growth and the ultimate results, for in these countless yet obscure cells of the brain there is the promise and the potency of effectiveness, of usefulness, of character and of moral and spiritual power. It is for the teacher, therefore, who desires to secure for the State good citizenship, to touch here and there, and by the stimulus of personal character and sympathetic association, endeavor to awaken the dormant powers until a response is obtained.

The piano which stands silent has wondrous possibilities, and although at the moment silent, is ready to respond instantly to the touch of any one who has the mastery of the keys. And so it is with the child — it is capable of harmonious development, but it requires the touch of one who understands the true meaning of life — of one who can measure the responsibilities of citizenship, and the many opportunities of usefulness, and that touch, meeting response, will result in the development of power. The State expects that philanthropy and intelligence will save the children and make of them good citizens, instead of letting them become criminals, outcasts and degenerates, permanent burdens upon society, for if the child is taken at the proper time, and the proper stimulus is applied, character will be formed and good citizenship follow. It is essential, therefore, to learn how best to influence them; how most effectively to teach them; how most completely to control them. Thus, the scope of training must go far beyond the ordinary daily routine followed in institutions and the children be taught that life means more than food, clothing and shelter.

The great problem, then, is after all, that of training into usefulness, and, whatever the plan adopted, whether it be that of the George Junior Republic, or the system adopted by the State Agricultural and Industrial School, or those employed elsewhere, the

one way to real and lasting success is to recognize the possibilities presented in these children of the State and endeavor perseveringly to awaken the inactive cells of the brain, and secure harmonious development of the faculties. This will require labor and thought and heart, but the rich measure of success achieved will be abundant compensation. (Applause.)

THE PRESIDENT:

The next is a paper by Dr. William Russell, Medical Inspector, State Commissioner in Lunacy, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

THE DUTIES OF THE POOR AUTHORITIES IN REGARD TO THE INSANE.

By WILLIAM L. RUSSELL, M. D., *Medical Inspector, State Commission in Lunacy, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.:*

In the system of public care of the insane of this State, the committed cases are provided for in State institutions. Much of the important work of the system has, however, to be attended to locally, and the responsibility of this is placed upon the poor authorities. The duties of the poor authorities in regard to the insane are defined by statute in sections 66, 67 and 68 of article III of the Insanity Law. Section 66 authorizes the various officials who attend to the needs of the poor in the various divisions of the State, to inquire into the manner in which insane persons are cared for by their relatives or guardians, and if the care and treatment are found to be not proper or unsuitable, to have the cases committed to the State hospitals. Under section 67, it becomes the duty of the poor authorities to see that all poor and indigent insane persons are timely given the relief provided by law, and, when necessary, committed and transferred to the State hospitals. In section 68 are specified the steps to be taken by the poor authorities for the protection of the public when a dangerous insane person is not properly provided for and treated by his relatives or committee. Such an insane person may, if necessary, be arrested by the poor authorities. This section also provides that any person apparently insane and conducting himself in a manner which in a sane person would be disorderly may be arrested by a peace officer.

In such case, however, the poor authorities are to be immediately notified and steps taken by *them* for the determination of the mental condition of the person arrested. Persons thus arrested are to be confined in a safe and comfortable place, and the conditions of their confinement are explicitly laid down as follows: "In no case shall any such insane person be confined in any other place than in a State hospital or duly licensed institution for a period longer than ten days, nor shall such person be committed as a disorderly person to any prison, jail, or lock-up for criminals, unless he be violent and dangerous, and there is no other suitable place for his confinement, nor shall he be confined in the same room with a person charged with or convicted of crime."

The spirit and intent of these sections of the law seem to plainly require the poor authorities to see that insane persons in the various communities are properly provided for and treated by their relatives and guardians, and whenever necessary sent to the State hospitals. Also, that when confined pending commitment and transfer they be placed in a safe and comfortable place, and protected from being classed with criminals. The provision to be made for their care and treatment during this period is not explicitly stated, it being apparently assumed that this could be safely left to the local authorities. The difficult and delicate nature of the duties thus required of the poor authorities can be fully appreciated only by those who have had actual experience with the insane. Even when the resources of a well-organized institution are at hand, the task of caring for insane persons is not always easy. How much more difficult must it be, without experienced attendants or proper facilities, to be the first to extend official aid to them while still at their homes or at large. It must also require some fortitude and delicacy to make inquiries into the care and treatment of insane persons who may appear to be neglected or ill-treated by their relatives, or who may be living an eccentric, unhygienic life alone, and, perhaps against vigorous protests, to insist upon their commitment and transfer to institutions. Efficient management of this part of the public care of the insane is, indeed, of great importance to the individual insane cases, to the public and to the officials responsible for it.

Just as in the first aid to the injured, the preservation of limb or of life itself may depend upon the measures first employed or

omitted, so, in many cases of mental disease, the treatment given in the early stages may have an important bearing on the future happiness and prospects of the insane person. This is strikingly illustrated in the experience of Mr. Clifford W. Beers, whose remarkable book entitled "A Mind That Found Itself," should be read by all interested in the better care of the insane. Mr. Beers tells how, on observing that several heavy iron bars were being fixed in the windows of the room in which he was placed, he immediately developed the delusion that he was to be horribly punished for some crime. "That barred window," he says, "started a terrible train of delusions which persisted for seven hundred and ninety-eight days. During that period my mind imprisoned both mind and body in a dungeon than which none was ever more secure." Other instances in which experiences in the early stages of mental disease have had a profound influence on the future of the case have come to my attention. It is, however, not only the welfare of those already insane that requires consideration in this matter. Every citizen should be concerned in the provision made for the insane. One has only to read the daily papers to find proof of the need of adequate means of protecting others from the dangerous and irrational acts of those suffering from mental disease. The interests of society require, too, that restoration to health and usefulness for those affected be as rapid and complete as possible. The economic loss, not to speak of other considerations, is very great. No one can feel sure, either, that provision for protection from suffering and for ready access to suitable care and treatment during an attack of mental disease may not, at some period of his life, become to him or to the members of his family a matter of intense personal interest. To the officials responsible for the work, it is always a matter of concern to have available means of doing it in such a way as will be satisfactory and creditable to them.

In the care of the insane in institutions, there has been steady progress in the direction of greater liberty and gentler and more rational measures. Recently I visited a new institution for the chronic insane in a western State, where over 2,000 patients were housed in homelike cottages, without a guard of any kind

on the windows and with few locked doors. No mechanical restraining apparatus was used in the treatment of the cases, and of over 900 male patients, all, except 125, were cared for by women nurses. This, indeed, represents the extreme limit of freedom from restrictive measures in the care of the insane, but illustrates what, in varying degree, may be found in the methods employed in all progressive institutions. The trend of progress in this direction serves to bring into stronger relief any unnecessarily severe measures which may be employed in the treatment of the insane at the hands of the ignorant, or where proper facilities may be lacking.

During the past year an investigation of the treatment received by the insane persons pending their commitment and transfer to the State hospitals was made by a committee appointed by a conference of representatives of the State hospitals with the Commission in Lunacy. The report of this committee will ere long be published and distributed to those most interested. It showed that outside the Greater New York district, 71 per cent. of the patients sent to the State hospitals were transferred directly from their homes; 9 per cent. from the general hospitals, principally at Albany and Rochester; and 3 per cent. from almshouses. Four hundred and twenty-two cases, or 17 per cent. of the whole number received, were brought from jails, lock-ups, and station-houses. The patients received at the hospitals in the Metropolitan district are nearly all brought from the psychopathic wards at Bellevue and the Kings county hospitals. As an illustration of the way in which objectionable methods may persist from force of long-continued custom, it was interesting to find that in the borough of Manhattan no provision was made for sending nurses to bring insane persons from their homes to Bellevue, and in consequence the police had to be called upon, while in Brooklyn special nurses, authorized to arrest the patients if necessary, were employed for this purpose by the poor authorities. The result was that at Bellevue the proportion brought in by the police was $55 \frac{5}{10}$ per cent. and at the Kings County Hospital 25 per cent. Of the patients transferred directly from their homes 85 per cent. had apparently been considerably and carefully treated; the remaining 15 per cent. had been neglected or

ill-treated. Those received from jails, lock-ups and station-houses, eighty-seven of whom were women, had in many instances been subjected to grossly improper or injurious treatment. Frequently their confinement in these places seemed to have been unnecessary and the conditions under which they were cared for were contrary to law. In some places insane women were habitually confined in jails or lock-ups without attention except what could be given by male keepers. To have this practice discontinued, it should be sufficient to make it known.

The report of the committee indicates that the most serious defects in the methods of caring for the insane pending commitment and transfer to the State hospitals relate to neglect and improper treatment at home owing to ignorance or incapacity of the relatives and to the absence of provision for skilled assistance; confinement in jails and lock-ups; and the employment of the police instead of trained attendants and nurses to transfer insane persons to general hospitals, especially in the borough of Manhattan. Adequate means for overcoming these defects would not only promote the welfare of individual insane persons, but would help to bring about more intelligent dealing with the problems of insanity by means of earlier and more successful medical care and nursing of the cases.

In dealing with such a broad and complex problem, there can be no one method or remedy. The conditions are different in different places and must be dealt with according to circumstances. All that can be done in a general way is to make a few suggestions as to what should be aimed at, and as to possible means to be used. Two needs seem to stand out prominently in the general situation — one for earlier and easier access to hospital care, the other for skilled attendants and nurses to be used in caring for the cases in their homes or other suitable places when general hospital care seems unnecessary or is not available. Even without additional resources than at present, some improvements in the methods employed might be made. The practice of confining insane women in jails and lock-ups seems quite unnecessary. Investigation showed that in some places where the facilities were as meager as anywhere it was never resorted to. The number of insane men thus confined might

also be reduced, as there is a difference in regard to this also in different places where conditions are apparently similar. The extent to which special attendants are employed by the poor authorities to care for the insane in their homes or elsewhere, even in lock-ups, varies also. More consideration is evidently shown the insane in some places than in others, depending probably upon prevailing custom, and the personality and views of the officials responsible.

In considering provision for securing hospital care more promptly, the possibility of earlier access to the State hospitals should be first thought of. Even in New York and other places where provision for care in general hospitals is made, it would be better if more of the cases were taken directly to the State hospitals, thus dispensing with one transfer and frequently with the attentions of the police. Prompt notification that a patient is to be transferred should be sent to the State hospital, and this should be followed by dispatch of the nurses by the next train, if possible. Pains should be taken to have the patients ready as required by law, and the return of the nurses with the patients should be facilitated in every way. This is the practice usually followed, and more careful attention to it in the occasional instances where neglects may creep in would perhaps do something to make the system of public care more efficient. Co-operation to this end between the State hospitals and the local authorities should be cultivated. It is the aim of the Commission in Lunacy to have the hospitals as readily accessible to suitable cases as the legal and other restrictions will permit. To this end the Commission should be supported by the local authorities in efforts to locate new hospitals as near as possible to the populous centers, from which the insane will be received, not seventy or more miles away. At the last session of the Legislature the law was amended so as permit the admission to the State hospitals of persons suffering from incipient mental disease who might be willing and sufficiently intelligent to come in voluntarily. It is believed that this provision will be specially useful in cases of recurrent disorders in which the patient realizes the approach of the attack. Arrangements for the later commitment, if necessary, of cases admitted in this way should be made at the time of admission. The law in regard to the

parole of patients by the superintendents of the hospitals was also modified last winter, so as to permit the extension of parole to a maximum period of six months if thought advisable. This, it is thought, will permit the ready return of some cases without the expense and difficulties of recommitment which would otherwise be necessary. A few years ago provision was made for the admission and detention, for five days, of suitable cases upon the petition and certificates alone pending the granting of the judge's order. This measure has provided means for earlier hospital care for a large number of cases, and should be resorted to whenever it can be made to serve the evident needs of the insane. There are marked differences in the extent to which it is employed in the hospital districts, the numbers thus admitted to the different hospitals during the last fiscal year varying from zero to 102. It is expected that the hospitals will co-operate in every way possible in facilitating the admission of suitable cases under this provision. It is necessary, however, that pains be taken to make sure that the judge's order is received at the hospital within the five days during which an emergency commitment is valid so as to avoid any question of illegal detention. While it is in most instances advisable to have nurses from the hospitals bring the patients, this is not essential, as under the law and regulations of the Commission, other proper persons may make the transfer. This, I think, is not generally understood.

The need of observation before commitment, the distance to the State hospitals, and the character of many of the cases will, however, prevent the State hospitals from furnishing full provision for early treatment of the insane. Local provision is also necessary. The best and most feasible arrangement for this seems to be to admit persons suffering from mental disorder into general hospitals, special provision being made for that purpose. Such an arrangement is urgently required in those large cities where it is still lacking. For the smaller cities and towns, it ought to be possible for the county authorities to arrange with general hospitals at convenient points for the reception of cases from certain sections. The provision made will no doubt have to vary according to the varying conditions to be met. One thing

should be aimed at: Hospital care should replace confinement in lock-ups or other environment suitable only for criminals.

More important for the majority of cases than special accommodations are attendants and nurses trained to care for the insane by the most approved methods. From the large number of graduates of both sexes from the training schools connected with the State hospitals, it ought not to be difficult to make arrangements for securing enough to meet the requirements, and such nurses should be employed at general hospitals and elsewhere as necessary. Investigation showed that, at a few places, not infrequently the nurses sent to bring patients to the State hospitals found them being cared for at home, at hotels, even in lock-ups, by special attendants and nurses employed by the poor authorities. If this can be done in a few places, it can be in all, and the practice should certainly be extended.

In order to make progress in the better care of the insane, we should first divest our minds of the sharp distinction generally made between mental disorders and other forms of illness. A case of typhoid fever or meningitis is readily recognized to be sick, and, no matter how difficult it may be to manage, the delirium is looked upon as an evidence of illness and the case is treated accordingly. A protracted delirium or allied mental disturbance, possibly without, though more frequently with, manifest physical evidence of disease, places the sufferer in an entirely different category. He is then looked upon as insane, and becomes subject to all the misinterpretations and mistreatment which have belonged to the insane since the Dark Ages. I am quite aware that prevailing views and methods cannot be overcome all at once, and, with a full realization of the difficulties, I have no wish to exaggerate the situation. It is not many years ago since leather straps, muffs, belts, wristlets, massive stationary furniture, airing courts with high board fences, and extra heavy doors with peepholes, were part of the regulation equipment of every institution for the insane. Now these are all gone, and we know that not only were they unnecessary for the control of the patients, but that the violent conduct for which they were provided was exaggerated and often *produced* by their use. The same experience would follow the adoption of better methods of

treatment of the insane pending commitment. I have refrained from citing instances of improper treatment to which insane persons are subjected in some of the towns and counties of the State. A few of these are given in the report of the committee to which I referred. I assure you, however, that the methods employed are in these instances inexcusable and disgraceful. Easier access to State or general hospital care, special provision being made at a sufficient number of general hospitals to this end, and the employment of specially trained attendants and nurses, do not seem to be unreasonable or impractical improvements. Humanity and the intelligent management of the problems of insanity relating to society as a whole demand that at least this much be done now. Better organization and co-operation between county and town authorities may be required. If so, they should be provided for.

There are to-day in the State of New York about 30,000 committed insane persons, and the indications are that the net increase during the present fiscal year will be more than a thousand. Twenty per cent. of these persons become insane from intoxicants, 10 per cent. from syphilis, and many others from other physical and mental factors which in the nature of things should become manageable. The problems of cause and prevention of such cases, of early cure, and of avoidance of recurrences, press more and more for solution as knowledge increases in extent and certainty. To deal with these problems effectively, it will be necessary to take a broader view of our system of public care of the insane than to regard it simply as a means of relieving society of certain troublesome members. We are too liable to look afar to some brilliant discovery, or to some radical, impractical nostrum for relief from our difficulties, rather than to commonplace remedies near at hand. Supremely useful, possibly brilliant, discoveries, and radical measures in certain limited fields may some day contribute remarkably to the elimination of mental diseases. Progress, however, consists usually in a better understanding and a more efficient management of what lies nearest, and there is no reason to expect any different way in dealing with insanity. Even brilliant discoveries may fail to become effective if these be lacking, and these are, in fact, usually the outcome of earnest endeavor on these lines.

The local authorities and the State authorities are, I know, striving earnestly to perform their duties in regard to the insane as well as their knowledge and the means at their disposal will permit, and the large majority of the cases, even where the methods are imperfect—as where the police are too frequently called upon—are treated with consideration and gentleness. An efficient system should, however, provide just the right treatment of each case, and with a better understanding of the situation means for adequate dealing with it should be forthcoming. In no other way than by working out such a system can we hope to eventually check the accumulation of the incurably insane which is increasing with such rapidity.

With the hope that some practical improvement and better co-operation in behalf of the insane may be the outcome, I count it a great privilege to have brought forward this subject for discussion.

MR. LODGE:

Superintendent Storrs said yesterday—or to-day—that his daughter was to graduate and he could not be present to open this discussion.

In this paper there are some questions that come right home to the superintendents of the poor. I would like to ask what we are going to do. In Monroe county all the insane and alcoholic cases are immediately sent to the county hospital. Now our rooms are small, strong rooms with heavy wire-screens across the door, not bars; and the point is this: Without enough attendants to keep their eyes on the patients, if put to bed on the ward, what other method have we? Suppose we allow a suspected patient the freedom of the ward and he gets through a window? I would like to ask Dr. Russell if it would be a satisfactory course of treatment if the superintendent of the county hospital—satisfactory treatment to have these rooms made secure and the doors secured and a secure window that they cannot get through. Presumably the patient will not be there more than one night, and hardly ever more than two. That is one of the problems the superintendents of the poor have to contend with. Those cases are sent to us without notice. Is that treatment satisfactory?

DR. RUSSELL:

The provision at Monroe county would be superior to what might be found in some other parts of the State. As to keeping them in wards some of them can be kept in rooms together, but they cannot be put in wards with insane patients. The provisions for wards provide for skilled attendants. It is more important than anything else to get the right people to manage it. I think a special provision should be made at the county hospitals. If the Commission in Lunacy can be of any service I am sure they are at your service. If such provisions could be made it would be a great advance over the present conditions.

THE PRESIDENT:

The secretary has the report of various committees which will be read at this time.

MR. IVES:

I will read the report of the committee on organization, as follows:

REPORT.

Your committee on organization will report as follows:

For president, W. H. Townsend, of Yates county.

For first vice-president, A. C. Sutherland, Orange county.

For second vice-president, C. E. Dodge, Chautauqua county.

For secretary, J. W. Ives, Wyoming county.

P. REDMOND,
C. CROSMAN,
WM. C. ACKER,
J. F. DOTY.

MR. REDMOND:

I move the secretary cast one ballot for the ticket.

MR. WEISZ:

I second the motion.

Mr. Redmond's motion was put to a vote and carried, and the ticket declared elected.

MR. IVES:

I have here the report of the committee on time and place:

REPORT.

We, the committee on time and place at which to hold the Superintendents' Convention for 1909, have after careful consideration unanimously decided to recommend holding the convention at Thousand Island Park, June 22-23-24-25, 1909.

DAVID W. HITCHCOCK,
Chairman.

C. L. VAN ORDEN,
Secretary.

MR. WEISZ:

I arise to a point of order here. I find a great many empty seats here. I find this report is signed by the chairman, who is not present, and I would ask that this report be laid aside until the president elects some man to bring that chairman in here. This matter of empty seats in the last hours of the convention ought to be stopped, and I think Hitchcock is as good a man to be called down as anybody else. I would ask that the report be laid aside.

MR. LODGE:

I would ask if the report is signed by Mr. Hitchcock?

MR. IVES:

Signed by Hitchcock and by C. L. Van Orden.

MR. LODGE:

I move as an amendment to Mr. Weisz's motion that the report of the committee be adopted as read.

Mr. Lodge's amendment to the original motion was put and carried.

MR. WEISZ:

I will withdraw that motion, Mr. President.

MR. LODGE:

I think Mr. Weisz's original motion has had its effect.

The secretary then read the report of the committee on resolutions, as follows:

REPORT.

Resolved, That the thanks of this Association be and hereby are tendered to the president, Mr. E. B. Nichols, for his just and impartial manner of conducting the business of this convention.

To the secretary, Mr. J. W. Ives, for his faithful and untiring efforts in behalf of the Association.

To the Hon. J. D. Reed, for his cordial welcome and expressions of confidence in handing over the keys of the town to the convention.

To Mr. John W. Brown, superintendent of poor, and the citizens of Otsego county, for extended courtesies, and we also extend our sympathy to Mr. Brown in his affliction.

Mr. Gasherie De Witt, proprietor of "The Earlington," for the superior hotel service and attentions shown the delegates to the convention.

It is with deep sorrow and regret that we mention the loss by death since we last met of three members of this Association, viz.: Edward J. Box, superintendent of Cortland county; Elbert Chamberlain, superintendent of Erie county, and Smith A. Hopkins, superintendent of Westchester county, and we hereby extend our sincere sympathy to their respective families.

We wish to extend our cordial thanks to the matrons and ladies of the different charitable organizations for the interest they have taken in our convention, and to all those who have participated in making this the 38th Annual Convention of the Superintendents of Poor of the State of New York so successful.

JONATHAN BAKER,
GEO. C. RUNDELL,
ISAAC P. CARMAN,
WM. C. LAWRENCE,
H. D. NOTTINGHAM,

Committee.

MR. IVES:

I move its adoption.

Mr. Ives' motion was seconded by Mr. Lodge, and carried.

THE PRESIDENT:

You will now listen to the report of the treasurer.

REPORT.

MR. IVES:

STATE CONVENTION, SUPERINTENDENTS OF THE POOR,

In account with

JAMES W. IVES, *Treasurer.*

By balance in treasury as per last report....	\$1.64	
By subscriptions received, 1907, 1908.....	349.92	
		\$351.56
1907.	Dr.	
To express on record books.....	\$0.95	
To telegram to L. P. Farmer, New York city.	.84	
To expenses and mileage, H. P. Graham to Albany	5.80	
To cash paid C. V. Lodge for printing....	23.85	
To stamps	2.00	
To expenses to Buffalo (twice).....	3.55	
To salary secretary and treasurer.....	75.00	
To F. C. Eastman, stenographer.....	35.00	
The Spendelow Printing Co., printing pro- ceedings	185.15	
		332.14
1908.		
Balance in treasury		\$19.42

JAMES W. IVES,
Secretary-Treasurer.

MR. CROSMAN:

I move its adoption. Seconded. Carried.

MR. IVES:

In order to keep up this balance you have got to help me, gentlemen. The money all comes from the superintendents, and the number of superintendents does not increase.

THE PRESIDENT:

The next will be a paper from Miss Curry on "County Agencies for Dependent Children."

COUNTY AGENCIES FOR DEPENDENT CHILDREN.

MISS CURRY:

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen: Of all the duties devolving upon a superintendent of the poor none is so important as the care he is called upon to provide for the dependent children of his community.

In the case of an aged person the matter is simply one of providing a permanent home in as humane and as economical a way as may be. With the insane, the feeble-minded, the blind or other defective, the care needed by the unfortunate is indicated by the nature of the affliction, and suitable institutions are provided. Outdoor relief is not so simple, as the careless giving of this may create paupers who will be a menace and an expense to the community for generations. But far more complicated than any, or all of these, are the problems presented by an application to make a child dependent upon charity, be that charity public or private.

When public care is sought for a child the superintendent faces not a question of providing humane and economic care for a permanent disability, but he is called upon to assume responsibility for the child's future welfare. As this guardianship is not to be lightly transferred from the parent to the county, careful investigation is needed to determine why the parents or relatives cannot perform their obligation in regard to the child's care and education. Every effort must be made to overcome the supposed need of public support so that the child may be left in the home. But if unfit parents or the loss of parents make permanent care necessary, or unusual circumstances make temporary provision needful, then the problem is how to provide support and education so that the child may be fitted in the most thorough possible way, to become a self-respecting, self-supporting citizen in time to come.

We all agree, I think, that for the normal child, an institution should only be used for temporary care. That in a family home is found a better preparation for meeting the world's problems than can be found in an institution. Certain it is that the institution child in its early 'teens seems two years younger than does the outside one of its age, and that there is a peculiar lack

of initiative and of imagination in the one raised in an institution. The problems of the family, the little every-day experiences of each member of the household talked over by all, and which give a very practical education as to life's problems, conditions and standards, are necessarily lacking in an institution. The child who is one of fifty, or possibly one of 1,500, no matter how carefully provided for, cannot have the experience which the normal family child daily encounters.

The superintendent of the poor having accepted a child as a public charge cannot in justice to it and to the public be satisfied to place it in an institution and straightway think no more of it, except as he "O. K.'s" the bill for its maintenance once each year.

The well-being of the child, and also proper economy in handling public money, demands that each child be kept individually in mind with the view of returning it to its home as soon as family conditions improve, or in cases where permanent care is needed, with the view of placing the child in a carefully selected foster-home, under such oversight as will insure good, wholesome surroundings for it.

The State laws and the rules of the Board of Charities recognize the needs of the child, and also the danger of its being committed and then left indefinitely in an institution, regardless of possible changes in the conditions of the home from which it came, and so the State Constitution says that "no payment shall be made to an institution for any inmate who is not received and retained therein pursuant to rules established by the State Board of Charities." The Board of Charities, in accordance with this constitutional authority, has made the rule that commitments shall only be made for one year, and that these shall lapse and become void unless renewed, in writing, yearly, and further providing that all commitments must be "based upon the result of an investigation into the circumstances of the parents, relatives or guardians, if there be any," thus requiring a yearly investigation of every dependent case.

The carrying out of this rule, which is a most wise one, means, in most counties, the expenditure of an immense amount of time. Now the superintendent of the poor is usually *one* man who, no matter how hard he tries, cannot conduct a large institution, run

a farm profitably, administer outdoor relief, and still have the *main* part of his time left to devote to work for the dependent children.

The State Charities Aid Association because of its interest in the welfare of the little public dependents, and because of its full knowledge that the superintendent cannot do all that the good of the children demands, and all that the law requires, has from time to time established what is called agencies for dependent children to supplement the superintendent's efforts.

In certain centers of population, in New York City, in Erie county, with the city of Buffalo, in Monroe county, with Rochester, in Onondaga, with Syracuse, and in Westchester county, which is now almost a part of Greater New York, special agents are provided to do work for the dependent children — the entire expense being borne by the county, and oversight being by the county officials.

In the counties having agencies established by the State Charities Aid Association, the boards of supervisors have only needed to appropriate \$50 or \$60 a month toward the expense, while the local visiting committee of the association has furnished the rest of the money needed to put into each such county an experienced, capable agent who gives her whole time to doing such work for the dependent children of the county as has been outlined.

The oldest of our agencies is in the city of Newburgh, which has been doing successful work for thirteen years. In Columbia county the agency has been in operation seven years. In both of these fields the needs of the children have been carefully looked after and at the same time the average number supported by public funds is but half what it was in the years before the agencies were organized, which is a very substantial saving of public moneys.

The three years' work in Rockland county have been even more successful, for after the utmost care has been taken in doing the adequate thing for each child, we find that where the county spent over \$6,000 in years past, that now \$2,250 covers the expense of its children; a saving of nearly \$4,000 a year has been effected by the expending of \$720. In addition to this, this

agent has, at the request of the superintendent, investigated applications for outdoor relief, and we see that while \$3,700 was spent in 1904, but \$2,600 was needed in 1907, a reduction of \$1,100, and this item with no additional expenditure on the part of the county.

Montgomery county having recently entered into an agreement with us, an agent will soon be at work there.

In Schenectady county an agent began work February 1st of this year, and the first four months show remarkable results, twenty-four children having been removed from the list of county dependents. Of these four have been placed in free homes, one placed with its mother in a home where she can herself care for it, and nineteen have been returned to relatives or friends who have been found morally fit, and financially able, to care for them. As each child would have cost about \$100 this year, this means that in four months, at a cost to the county of \$200, the agency has saved it \$2,400, and that if the next eight months show equal results the county will have saved \$7,200 by expending \$600 or \$700.

Lest some one will say "It is the business of the superintendent to do such investigating," I will ask what superintendent here would have time to make 350 visits and to write 150 letters in a given four months, in addition to the duties he is already performing? That is what was required in Schenectady to accomplish this result.

After carefully considering the situation in more than thirty counties in this State, I am convinced that in every county except one or two small ones, where there are three superintendents who divided the work between them, and in counties having very few dependent children, perhaps fifteen or less, that the superintendent needs assistance in order that proper provision be made for the children of his county, and that true economy would demand that the county provide such assistance.

I am also sure that the plan of co-operation offered by the State Charities Aid Association is by far the best and cheapest way to provide this assistance.

The long experience of this Association, extending over the past thirty-six years, with its broad knowledge of the conditions

of all classes of dependents, and with its many resources, makes it possible for its agents to do the work most economically, as far as the public appropriation is concerned, and in a more thorough and effective way, than could be done without its aid and oversight, for the appropriation asked for from the county only covers in part the expenses of an agency, the rest being cared for by a strong local visiting committee of the State Charities Aid Association. Then the proper organizing of the work, and such superintendence and careful oversight as will maintain the highest state of efficiency if borne entirely by the Association, as is also the cost of placing in free family homes such children as can be so provided for.

The bureau of the Association which secures positions for women with infants where they can support themselves while keeping their little ones with them is also used by our agents without expense to the county.

By taking advantage of this offer of co-operation made by the State Charities Aid Association, it is possible for a county to provide the best possible care for its dependent children, care which will reduce to a minimum the chance of their continued dependence, and make this possible by an appropriation which seems but nominal, especially when the certain result of this work is to greatly reduce the number of dependents and hence the cost of their maintenance.

In counties having a small number of children, it would be perfectly possible to have an agent also investigate applications for outdoor relief, or to act as probation officer in connection with the courts or as truant officer under the Compulsory Education Law, if such work were needed or desired.

The State Charities Aid Association is anxious to extend these agencies into as many counties of the State as may be, and to that end we will be glad to talk over with any superintendent of the poor the situation in his county, and if conditions warrant we will stand ready to appear before the board of supervisors and present a definite proposition for the establishment of an agency.

H. IDA CURRY,

*State Superintendent of County Charities for Dependent
Children, State Charities Aid Association.*

THE PRESIDENT:

We will now listen to a paper by Mrs. Florence Grannis.

THE PLACED-OUT CHILD AND THE HOME.

MRS. GRANNIS:

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen of the Convention:

President Roosevelt has said that our greatest national asset is to be found in the children—with which we all agree. Then the question arises — “How can we best develop the positive good that is latent in every normal child?”

Twenty years ago the institution plan of rearing homeless children was paramount; to-day all classes agree that a carefully selected family home is infinitely preferable. In the beginning it was thought sufficient after receiving references that seemed to be satisfactory to allow the child to be taken to its new home without further investigation. As an illustration of the necessity of first visiting the home, attention might be called to a case where references are not always reliable. A good-looking, healthy woman of about fifty years of age called at an orphan asylum and asked to see some boys about fourteen years of age, one of whom she could take into her family (consisting of herself and one son twenty-two years old) and bring up as her own. The matron showed her the older boys who could be placed, and immediately she selected the oldest, who was a healthy, strong boy. When told that she would have to give references, she said she could do that, but did want to take the boy home with her, but was told that she could not until the references had been heard from and her home visited by a member of a committee. She at once offered to meet the visitor, who she said would have to drive nine miles. In due time references were received with all questions answered satisfactorily. The visitor went to the neighborhood, first calling on one of the references, who, when seeing a stranger, exclaimed, “Oh, are you from the asylum to investigate my neighbor’s home?” When an answer in the affirmative had been given she said, “Thank God, my prayer is answered! I dare tell you that which I could not write. Don’t let that woman have a boy, she only wants him to wait upon her own son, who weighs 250 pounds and is so lazy that he is in bed

half of his time. Last summer he shot a boy who was living there, accidentally, they claim, but the boy died." She continued by saying, "I have a son who I would rather see buried than allowed to go into that home." When asked why she answered the questions as she did, her only answer was: "She owes me \$200 and I felt sure some one would come to visit the home." Another reference was called upon and at first would say very little, but when told that possibly the destiny of a good, pure boy rested in his hands, he said: "I had my barns burned once for trying to save a boy from entering that home, and yesterday the woman called here and told my wife she hoped we would keep our mouths shut if a caller came asking questions about her." There was no need to look inside the house, for the sight of the yard would cause a shudder to pass over one. She may be looking for a boy yet!

As the strength of a chain is gauged by its weakest link, so the work of placing-out has often been condemned because of failure to carry on a careful, friendly supervision until the child is fully able to look after and protect his own interests.

Much cruelty, hardship, loneliness and misery have resulted from the giving away of children to strangers and then forgetting all about them. Such work might rightly be classed as "child-desertion," and the persons or societies responsible held guilty of a grave injustice, if not a crime, against the child. Hundreds of children have suffered much in mind and body and many have gone astray because of this neglect in the past, and we are here to-day to advocate such public measures as will mitigate the evil in the future.

When a child has been placed in a home (by this is meant a free home, as our country has no children in boarding homes, but are kept in a children's hospital or orphan asylum until a proper home is found), the placing-out agent's work has just begun with the child. Frequent visits to the home, always unexpected, correspondence with the school teacher, and the child also, if old enough, and encouraging the bringing of the child by its foster-parents to call upon the agent when in town, all of which result in the agent keeping in close touch with the child's every-day life. Failure to follow out the plan just stated nearly resulted disastrously to one

young girl, who was taken to a home by the matron of an orphan asylum, who remained over night in the home and left the child feeling that she would be well cared for, as everything denoted wealth, culture and happiness, the family consisting of mother and daughter. For some time the matron received cheerful letters from the child; after a while they came less frequently and finally ceased altogether. When the placing-out agent had been appointed, the matron asked her to call at this home, which she did, and found the child to be filling the position of stable boy, wash and scrub-woman and gardener, all at the age of sixteen years. The child was supposed to have been indentured, but upon investigation it was found that such papers had not been legally signed or recorded. The lady told the agent what a dreadful child she was, how "On the Lord's day she had asked her daughter if she might swing in the hammock;" and also of seeing her talking to a young man who was standing outside the fence on the Sabbath day. The room occupied by the child was absolutely unfit for any human being, which was surprising when the elegance of the furnishings of the other parts of the house are considered. The lady admitted that she could not find a man who she could get to do the work done by the poor child whom she accused of committing all the crimes imaginable except murder. The agent was not long in seeing what her duty to this child was, and there was a heart-rending separation taking place at once; but the grief was all on the part of the lady when she felt her grasp loosening upon the girl chore-boy.

The girl was returned to the asylum and to school, from which she had been deprived a greater part of the time while in the home. She graduated from the grammar school, learned stenography and at present is filling a responsible position in one of the largest manufacturing firms in town.

The physical condition of the placed-out child should be as carefully watched as the moral, and the agent must insist that the child be given the necessary examination for defective sight and hearing, as well as to discover any symptoms of tubercular trouble, especially if the child is liable to be thus afflicted. It should be the agent's duty to get all the facts possible regarding the physical condition of the parents and so be in position to forestall any conditions in the child which are liable to occur from heredity.

There are no hard and fast rules to govern the agent in dealing with the child or the home, every separate case being peculiar in itself and has to be dealt with from its own point of view. Whether the would-be foster-parents are childless or have a family of children is not always a reason for placing or refusing to place a child; the former may be entirely undesirable, while the latter may be an exceptionally good home.

Listen! Some two years ago a nurse in a hospital took an abandoned baby to her home. The family became very much attached to the little one, and notwithstanding the fact that they have nine children in the home, are anxious to adopt it as their own. They are well-to-do, intelligent, Christian people, and the baby will find a good home with them.

The younger the child is placed the more satisfactory all around; as, in our experience, no young child has to be replaced.

Our county judge is very emphatic in his refusal to sign adoption papers in the case of any child placed in a home, even though given away by its mother, until a thorough investigation is made by the superintendent for placing dependent children.

Cases have been found where in the judgment of the Superintendent, the home was not satisfactory and adoption papers were refused.

We can liken the neglected and dependent child to the ship driven about by adverse winds and tides; the asylums which shelter them, and the agent who places them, to the strong and intelligent pilot; and the home to the haven from which come good citizens and home-builders.

FLORENCE A. GRANNIS.

THE PRESIDENT:

The next is a paper by Miss Deacon.

MISS DEACON:

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen: As agent for the placing-out department of the State Charities Aid Association, I would like to give a very brief statistical report and also a brief description of the plan of work.

Our placing-out agency was established just ten years ago, in the summer of 1898, since which time we have placed in free

homes 729 children. Only twenty-three or about 3 per cent. of this number have died, and 254 have been legally adopted.

Believing that to raise the standards of placing-out methods and to extend the placing-out work were the most important needs in the child-caring work in this State and that this Association could contribute most effectively to these needs by actually doing careful placing-out work, we have striven to secure the co-operation of public officials and institutions and have successfully done so. We have up to the present time secured children from thirty-two different counties, ranging from Suffolk on the east to Cattaraugus on the west, and St. Lawrence on the extreme north. It is often advantageous to a child to be placed at a distance from the county to which it belongs. As this Association finds homes in all parts of this State and the adjoining States, it is particularly well qualified to be of assistance to institutions and officials in disposing of children whom it is undesirable to keep in the locality where they may have interfering relatives or where their history may be too well known.

During the past year a special effort has been made to extend the work as much as possible and secure children for placing-out from as many sections of the State as possible.

As special agent for the placing-out department to secure the co-operation of public officials in many sections of the State, I have interviewed many public officials, have been most kindly received and have not only secured their co-operation but am glad to say have been able to do a little in return by placing in free homes a considerable number of dependent children, both colored and white, ranging in age from three weeks to thirteen years. We hope as time goes on to be able to do a great deal more in the finding of homes for some of the children now dependent in the various counties of the State.

The placing of a child in a free home is one of great responsibility and should be very carefully done. The home cannot be too carefully investigated, and quite as important is the supervision of the child after it is placed in the home. We consider ourselves responsible for the supervision of our children until they reach the age of eighteen years, unless before that time they are legally adopted or, for some special reason, must be turned over to the

care of some other responsible agency or person. When a child reaches the age of eighteen, the child's record is marked "Passed from Care," although in the majority of cases friendly interest continues. The most satisfactory disposition of a friendless child is to have it legally adopted by some reliable and suitable family, thus enabling it to gain the rights which it has been deprived of by misfortune, including the right to the name of its foster-parents and to the inheritance of their property. That so large a proportion of our children are legally adopted affords us the greatest gratification. We retain the privilege of supervision of a child for at least one year before permission is given for its legal adoption. We feel that this is too important a step to be taken hastily and that the family should be very sure that the child whom they have taken is one whom they wish to keep as their own. On the other hand, if the child is perfectly satisfactory, it is only fair to the child to legally adopt it, as in this way the child not only inherits their property but also their name which is quite as important.

Another very important and necessary feature in placing-out work is a careful investigation in regard to the history of a child both for the protection of the child and of the good people who might offer it a home.

In order to decide what should be done with the dependent child one should thoroughly understand the circumstances of their relatives. Sometimes, when there are no parents, there may be an aunt, uncle, grandparents, brother or sister, who may be able and willing to provide for them. In cases where children have parents who are respectable we do not approve of placing them out if the parents will ever be able to provide for them and where only one parent is living we believe in making that one feel his or her parental responsibility.

We particularly disapprove of separating the mother and a young child unless the woman is immoral. Any able-bodied woman can keep one child and, if a suitable guardian, should be made to do so. If, however, the parent is not morally fit to bring up the child, then, for the welfare of the child, it may be wise to separate it from this parent, though even in such cases a baby should be kept with its mother until it is in physical condition to be separated from its mother. In cases like these for the protection of the

foster-parents who are to receive and care for it as their own, every precaution should be taken by the placing-out society to protect the family from any future interference. The parent should be required to sign a surrender before a notary public, relinquishing all claim to the child. For the protection both of the placing-out society and the family which is to receive the child, it is always well to have the child examined by a physician.

People who take young children with a view to adoption, generally prefer, if possible, to see the child before making a decision. They are often willing to travel a considerable distance to call at the office for this purpose. For this reason it greatly facilitates our work to have within easy reach of the office a few children who can be shown to families who apply in person. We are willing to co-operate with public officials by boarding near New York City children whom these officials wish to have placed in families if the officials will pay us the amount that the support of these children would cost elsewhere. As the amount which we have to pay for children in the vicinity of New York City is always considerably larger, and as we must pay the difference between what we receive from the public officials and what we actually expend to pay the board, furnish clothing, medical supplies, etc., such an arrangement involves considerable expense to the Association. On this account, we can afford to take only a limited number and are only willing to take children who have been seen by one of our agents and whom we have reason to think we can place in homes in the near future.

THE PRESIDENT:

Mrs. House, of Erie county, is called upon for remarks.

Mrs. House:

Mr. Chairman, and Ladies and Gentlemen.—I am reminded for some reason which you people with psychological training may determine, of the “hills of home.” I have a vision of a little company of worshippers gathering, in the quiet of the evening hour, at the place of prayer. The pastor, young — college-bred — filled with zeal and knowledge, selects a portion of Scripture and beginning with its genesis goes through its revelation, pressing out all that is good and helpful. When he finally closes he lays down

the book and says: "Brethren and sisters, there is a little time left, we will be glad to have you discuss this subject briefly." Like me, the brethren and sisters are helpless and are obliged to resort to experience which may be far from the subject. I wish to hold up Mrs. Grannis's hands in the matter of investigation of homes. I am reminded of a little boy, taken without previous visitation, to a home most highly recommended. It transpired that the applicant — the daughter of the house — was mentally unbalanced, and the parents knew nothing of her design. The matter of looking closely after the physical condition of the child is coming to be more and more considered. A boy almost totally deaf, with an apparently undeveloped mind, refused to have his front tooth filled with silver for fear it would turn dark. Miss Curry starts out with the right ring when she says that the most important part of a superintendent's duties is the care of the dependent children; that the future of the child is in his keeping. Miss Deacon's report reminds us of our work in Erie county, and we listen to helpful thoughts, hoping to glean that which will be of use in our own work.

When this convention met in Yonkers, I think, in 1902, a special meeting of agents was called which was presided over by Mrs. McPherson who was then matron of the Davenport Home at Bath. Mrs. McPherson was the first county agent of Erie, having been appointed in 1897. Her term of service was short as she took up the work at Bath after a few years. A recent notice in the paper tells of her promotion to a higher sphere. Though a comparative stranger to those of us who have taken up her work, we would pay a tribute of respect to her memory. In the special meetings of which Miss Curry has spoken, there may arise an enduring monument for her, for the work in which she was so much interested is bound to receive a helpful impetus from this little gathering in which we gain inspiration and encouragement by the experience of others. We are in a bad way indeed when we neglect to honor our pioneers. We have with us Mr. Trott of the New York Children's Aid Society who is ready to continue this experience meeting. May I ask him to join in this discussion?

Mrs. House's remarks were followed by Mr. Trott who gave a review of his work in the country at large.

THE PRESIDENT:

I think I voice the sentiment of this convention when I ask Judge Peckham, of Jamestown, for a few remarks.

HON. E. VERNON PECKHAM:

Mr. President and Ladies and Gentlemen of the Convention:

If I have anything to say I want to stand right close to these superintendents of the poor.

In looking over this room I see a few superintendents of the poor. Some of them I have talked with; I don't want to talk to them. It is the others that I *do* want to talk to. They are not here. Had I better send a wireless message for them?

I am delighted to be at this convention. You know that I have an interest here or I would not be here. I think a great deal of the superintendents of the poor, especially the superintendent of Chautauqua county. I like him, and when I stood in the convention last fall and nominated him for his third term, it gave me great pride, and I was pleased to do it for he "had made good." I got him, and induced him to go down to Lake Placid, soon after he was elected superintendent of the poor, and attend your convention. He learned there more how to care for his office and the duties connected with it the three days we were up in that building than I could have taught him in ten years. (Applause.)

The children of the State of New York, I am satisfied, are being cared for. I am delighted with reports that were given here by these various assistants. You will excuse me if I do not enumerate the names, but the lady on the left and the gentleman on the right satisfy me that the children are being cared for and looked after, and I do not want to add to nor take from that proposition. I have a single word to say, and that is to the superintendents of the poor. You are a great deal bigger men than they were ten or fifteen years ago. You know more about your work than you did then. You are better able to discharge the duties of your office to-day than you were then. That ghostly shadow that followed you daytimes and nights — the taxpayer of your county — does not cast so dark a shadow and you are getting so that you dare to do something. (Applause.) You are earning

your salaries and that is the best job a man ever held in a political office. (Applause.) You are doing more efficient work; you are saving your towns and counties, if your towns are providing for the poor, and, as a whole, you are saving for your county. You are "making good!" That is a good political word. Why is it? Now, I wish that every superintendent of the poor was right in this room! Why is it? It is because of this convention. It is a hard business and you can learn more law and more about your office and how to discharge your duties in that office intelligently by attending this convention four days than you can by hovering around all the law offices in your county.

And, after I heard all these beautiful ladies make these remarks, I wonder what I might have been had I been an orphan. (Applause.) Why, there is nothing in the world like the olive branch — (continued applause) — I want to insist that I like to talk — I have got the asthma; perhaps you did not observe that — but I want to impress upon the minds of this State convention of the county superintendents of the poor, the value of the convention. I want you to appreciate it. You go home better and bigger men and women. You can go home and tell your lawyer something.

I was so delighted when I came here yesterday morning. I was fearful as I walked up the sidewalk that I might find only a few here, but I was glad to find this room full. I thank you for the opportunity of expressing myself in a feeble way. (Applause.)

MR. FOLKS:

I think Miss Wood and Miss Peck might have something to say to us.

MISS WOOD:

Mr. Chairman: I do not think the members of the convention have left very much for us to say; they have said about all. We are trying to follow out the principles of placing our children in good homes, and to a great extent in farm homes.

The superintendent of Rockland county is not here; I tried to persuade him to come, but he did not think it was the very most important thing. I hope the superintendent in Rockland county

will come next year. I think he will learn a great deal. I have learned considerable in the discussions among the agents, and, as Judge Peckham said, I feel very much bigger and stronger for the work after such meetings.

MR. LODGE:

It is not generally known that the Governor of the State of Massachusetts personally appointed Mr. Hopewell to come here, and I offer the following resolution:

Resolved, That the thanks of this Association be extended to the Governor of the State of Massachusetts and to the State Board of Charities of that State for the kindly interest shown in this convention in sending as a delegate the Hon. William Hopewell; and to Mr. Hopewell for the very excellent paper presented.

Mr. Lodge's motion was seconded and carried unanimously.

It was then moved and seconded and carried that this convention do now adjourn, to again convene at the time and place decided upon by the committee on time and place, at Thousand Island Park, N. Y.

The agents for dependent children attending the convention of superintendents of the poor, at Richfield Springs, held a conference on the morning of June 23d, for the discussion of such topics of common interest as might be presented.

This meeting was followed by two others on June 24th and 25th, twenty-two persons attending. Some twenty-five topics bearing directly on the better care of dependent children were most profitably considered.

A permanent organization was effected as an auxiliary to the convention of county superintendents of the poor, with Mr. Homer Folks, secretary of the State Charities Aid Association as chairman, and Miss H. Ida Curry, State superintendent of county agencies for dependent children (105 East Twenty-second street, New York city), as secretary.

It is hoped that through an interchange of information of value to agents, and through future meetings, this organization may prove very helpful.

MISS H. IDA CURRY,

Secretary.

APPENDIX

STATISTICAL REPORT.

MRS. JENNIE R. HOUSE, ERIE COUNTY.

	Catholic.	Protestant.
Applications received	107	270
Visits and interviews	2,525	2,565
Letters written	610	1,637
Children returned to parents or other relatives.	95	58
Children transferred	2	9
Returned to institution	3	1
Children boarded	5	15
Placed in correctional institutions	1	2
Added to supervision	61	93
Whole number placements	152	164

The following is a report of homes visited, children placed and adopted and number of miles traveled during the fiscal year from October 31, 1906, to November 1, 1907, by Mrs. Grannis.

Homes visited 238; children placed, 40; adopted, 10.

	Miles.
Traveling, by railroad	6,231
Traveling, by trolley	863
Traveling, by livery	1,174
Total ..	8,268

The following is a report of the above facts from November 1, 1907, to date (June 22, 1908):

Homes visited, 160; children placed, 20; children adopted 6.

	Miles.
Traveling, by railroad	5,155
Traveling, by trolley	881
Traveling, by livery	398
Total ..	6,434

During the above period seventeen children have been returned and eleven of these replaced.

Largest number of applications for children in one month, twenty-six.

REPORTS OF MONROE COUNTY AGENTS.

REPORT OF GENERAL SECRETARY.

FOR YEAR ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1906.

	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL
Number of children in the Society October 1, 1906..	141	101	242
Received during year.....	31	33	64

Making a total of.....	172	134	306
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Discharged during year:

	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Adopted	5	1	6
Returned to parents.....	12	6	18
Orders expired	3	2	5
Withdrawn by O. P.....	1	3	4
Became 21 years of age.....	3	2	5
Discharged by Society.....	..	1	1
Died	1	2	3
	25	17	42

Leaving in the Society October 1, 1907.....	147	117	264
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Total number received since incorporation.....			707
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Discharged:

Adopted	137
Indentured	5
Returned to parents or guardians.....	142
Orders expired — child becoming 16.....	50
Withdrawn by overseer of poor.....	22
Became 21 years of age.....	26
Discharged by vote of the Society.....	6
Died	47
Committed to institutions	8
	443

264

The children in the Society are held as follows:

On city orders	162
On county orders	30
On town orders:	
Brighton	2
Chili	1
Gates	2
Greece	2
Hamlin	2
Henrietta	1
Irondequoit	1

On town orders — *continued*:

Mendon	2
Ogden	3
Sweden	4
Wheatland	1

21

Without orders 42

264

They are being cared for:

	Boys.	Girls.	Total
In free homes.....	56	54	110
In boarding homes	90	57	147
In institutions	1	6	7
	147	117	264

Religion of children received since incorporation of the Society:

Protestant	431
Catholic	252
Jewish	8
Unknown	16

707

	Prot.	Cath.	Jew.	Total
October 1, 1906, there were in the Society....	156	85	1	242
Received during year.....	43	21		64
Total	199	106	1	306
Discharged during year.....	22	20		42
Leaving October 1, 1907.....	177	86	1	264

At present there are:

	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Protestant	94	83	177
Catholic	52	34	86
Jewish	1		1
	147	117	264

	Oct. 1, '06.	Rec'd.	Total.	Disch'd.	Order Expired.	Leav ing.
City orders	147	47	194	25	7	162
County orders	31	13	44	4	1	39
Town orders	23	4	27	6		21
No orders	41		41	7	-8	42
	242	64	306	42		264

MARY R. ORWEN, General Secretary.

REPORT OF CATHOLIC AGENT

Number of applications received.....	52
Number of applications investigated.....	48
Number of applications desirable.....	32
Number of applications undesirable.....	11
Number of children received.....	21
Number of children visited.....	531
Number of children adopted.....	3
Number of letters received.....	14

F. BLANCHE DRURY, Catholic Agent.

REPORT OF PROTESTANT AGENT.

Number of applications received.....	73
Number of applications investigated.....	114
Number of applications desirable.....	66
Number of applications undesirable.....	30
Number of children received.....	43
Number of children adopted.....	3
Number of children visited.....	610
Number of Protestant children.....	177
Number of letters and cards received from children.....	35

AMELIA MARR GOLER, Protestant Agent.

COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS

STATE BOARD OF CHARITY.

State House, Boston, July 16, 1908.

MR. JAMES W. IVES,

Secretary of Convention of the Superintendents of the Poor,
of the State of New York.

Dear Sir.— Having forwarded to His Excellency, Curtis Guild, Jr., the resolution regarding William Hopewell, adopted by the convention at Richfield Springs, I am requested by the Governor to express to the superintendents his high appreciation of their action in the matter.

Very truly yours,

JOHN D. WELLS,

Clerk of the Board.

LIST OF DELEGATES IN ATTENDANCE.

	Post-Office.
Acker, William C. (and wife), Supt. Steuben Co.....	Bath
Arnold, H. C., Supt. Herkimer Co.....	Middleville
Baker, Jonathan (and wife), Keeper and Matron Suffolk Co.....	Yaphank
Berns, Albert, Supervisor, Erie Co.....	Farnham
Bennett, W. S. (and wife)	Patchogue
Brooks, D. C., Supt. Tioga Co.	Spencer
Brown, John W. (and wife), Supt. Otsego Co.	Cooperstown
Bliss, J. J. (wife and daughter), Supervisor Wyoming Co.....	Bliss
Burgess, A. E., Overseer of Poor Genesee Co.....	Pembroke
Byrnes, James, Delegate Westchester Co.....	Dobbs Ferry
Carman, I. P. (and wife), Superintendent Dutchess Co.	Oak Summit
Carpenter, C. W., Delegate Dutchess Co.	Staatsburg
Cutler, S. H. (and wife), Delegates Dutchess Co.....	Millbrook
Cash, H. B., Supervisor Monroe Co.	Rochester
Clark, Miss Mary Vida, S. C. Aid Ass'n.....	105 East 22nd Street, New York
Clark, Lorin, Commissioner of Charities	Mt. Vernon
Clark, George (and wife), Supt. Chemung Co.	Breeseport
Cohen, Sol. (and wife), Orange Co.	Newburgh
Collins, W. W. (and wife), Supt. and Matron Orange Co.	Newburgh
Cromwell, Chas., Supt. Wyoming Co.	Peoria
Crosman, Cortland, Supt. Genesee Co.	Alexander
Cullen, Margaret, Placing-out Agent Erie Co....	126 Spaulding Street, Buffalo
Curry, Miss H. Ida, S. C. Aid Ass'n.....	105 East 22nd Street, New York City
Daily, Edward (and wife), Delegates Suffolk Co.	Babylon
Deacon, Miss Mary A., S. C. Aid Ass'n.....	105 East 22nd Street, New York City
DePottar, A. D., Supervisor Monroe Co.	Rochester
Dillenback, Wm. (and wife), Supt. Montgomery Co.	Fonda
Dodge, C. E. (and wife), Supt. Chautauqua Co.	Dewittville
Doty, J. F. (and wife), Supt. Wayne Co.....	Wolcott
Doxey, F. W. (and wife), Com'r of Charities	Newburgh
Drury, Miss F. Blanche, Children's Aid Society	Rochester
Dunnaway, F. P. (and wife), Supt. Jefferson Co.	Watertown
Eastman, F. C., Stenographer	Wyoming
Elden, W. W., Supt. Oneida Co.	Rome
Everingham, A. E., Supt. Onondaga Hospital	Syracuse
Flaherty, Frank D., Supervisor Jefferson Co.	Adams
Fleming, Geo. A. (and wife), Genesee Co.....	East Bethany
Folks, Homer (and wife), Secretary State Charities Aid Association	105 East 22nd Street, New York City
Gillette, Willis K., Clerk Board of Supervisors Monroe Co.....	Rochester
Gooding, Elias J. (and wife), Supervisor Ontario Co.....	Bristol Center
Goler, Amelia M., Agent Children's Aid Society	Rochester
Graves, N. K., Delegate Oneida Co.....	Rome
Grannis, Florence A., Supt. Placing-out Children	Syracuse
Griffis, D. W., Overseer of Poor Genesee Co.....	Batavia
Grunder, D. C. (and wife), Supt. and Matron Allegany Co.....	Angelica

Post-Office.

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